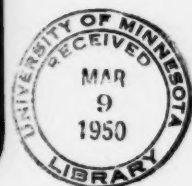


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VOL. IV. No. 2

India's First President

by

ALFRED J. EDWIN (New Delhi)

The Outlook for Afghanistan

by

SIR GILES SQUIRE

The Story of Hong Kong's Trade

by

R. M. McKINNON

The Forthcoming B.I.F. 1950

by

V. WOLPERT

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INSURGENTS IN INDONESIA

It is a tragedy that the young United States of Indonesia, just at the time when they are consolidating their new administrative machinery and planning their basic economy, should suffer under the irresponsible and dangerous activities of such a desperado as R. P. P. Westerling, known as "Turk." Actually, there is nothing more Turkish about him than that he was born in Istanbul thirty years ago, as the son of a Dutch father and a Greek mother. As the mere figurehead of a group of colonial Dutch adventurers who are dissatisfied with the Netherlands' action in granting sovereignty to Indonesia, he is himself far less remarkable than his criminal record. He became notorious in 1945-46, when he was responsible for the most brutal atrocities during the "cleaning up" action in Macassar. According to signed eye witness accounts, Westerling rounded up whole villages and either locked the population into the long houses which he then set on fire, or machine gunned them on their village squares. The estimated casualties due to his activities at that time amounted to 40,000 men, women and children. The details which became known were sufficient to induce the Dutch Parliament to appoint a commission to investigate Westerling's crimes. Its findings were never published, although they must have been compiled three years ago. Dutch official circles, however, admitted that 5,000 people had been killed by Turk Westerling. Afterwards he was sent to Java, where he occupied himself and his forces in the same, but less publicised, manner. By that time still no action had been taken against him. As a white Moslem, Westerling enjoys a certain amount of prestige, and his nebulous political ideas — to preserve the independence of Pasundan from the Republic of Indonesia within the United States of Indonesia —

attracted a number of Pasundan deserters. His army "of the Queen of Justice and Wisdom" has now combined forces with the "Division, August 17" consisting of Communist guerrillas and with the fanatic Dar-ul-Islam. Westerling's bands are dangerous to international peace and security. Strange bed-fellows, the components of his force are fighting for entirely different purposes, and their success, or even their mere activity, spell chaos for S.E. Asia. The greatest danger is that they are suspiciously well armed, not with Japanese left-overs, but with modern British and American weapons. And the greatest mystery is: who supplied them with these arms?

CHINA—AFTER RECOGNITION

Britain's recognition of the new Chinese regime was, although belated, a vital step which should initiate normal Anglo-Chinese relations. The next move, however, rests with Peking and it is regrettable that China, instead of welcoming accredited representatives in the usual manner, stipulated that the opening of diplomatic relations would first have to be discussed and that she expected special missions for that purpose. The result is that she embarrassed those States who have already recognised her and that she deters others from doing so for the time being. China is obviously playing for time, but to presume that she does so solely to please Russia would be over-simplifying the issue. Altogether, Soviet influence on the new China is being grossly over-estimated in the West. The victory of the Chinese Communists is a product of China's own situation and has been helped very little indeed by Soviet efforts. In fact, it is not so much China who needs Soviet backing, but rather Russia who requires Chinese support for her Far Eastern interests. Some of these interests are bound to clash violently with Chinese national aspirations and are just as liable to become the target of Chinese xenophobia as any other imperialist incursion into what China considers her sphere of sovereignty. In spite of his firmly-held Communist doctrines, Mao Tze-tung seems by no means prepared to become a Russian puppet and his remarkably prolonged

stay in Moscow appears to support the theory that he is well aware of his strong position and that he is not easily browbeaten, even if Russia thinks fit to balance the banqueting atmosphere in Moscow with troop concentration on the Manchurian frontier.

One of the crucial problems of the future relationship between the Kremlin and the Mao Tze-tung regime is the question whether the Asian Communist parties should be directed from either Moscow or Peking. The victories of the Chinese Communists have considerably increased their prestige among the Communist parties throughout the East. The Japanese Communists, for example, find it more expedient to popularise the "Three Winds" tactics described by Mao Tze-tung in his *New Democracy*, than the *Problems of Leninism* and the other textbooks issued in Moscow for Communists all over the world. Moscow insists on the so-called "vertical" relations between the various Communist parties, which means that each party has to take directives from Moscow, and that contacts between the parties of the individual countries must not be direct, but *via* Moscow. The actual conflict with Tito began when he and Dimitrov—both at that time well-trusted Kremlin lieutenants—started to discuss the plans for a Balkan confederation of Communist-dominated states. Similarly, the Chinese Communist victories have established ties between the Chinese Communists and other Communist parties in Asia which are too close for Moscow's liking. There is no doubt that during Mao Tze-tung's absence, the extremist elements within the Chinese Communist Party under Liu Shi-chi and Li Li-san are doing their utmost to increase their influence and that the split between them and the more nationally minded faction has widened considerably.

Believing in the freedom of the press, this journal represents a forum where articles containing many different, and often controversial, opinions are being published. They do not necessarily express the views or policy of the paper.

INDIA'S FIRST PRESIDENT—Dr. Rajendra Prasad

by Alfred J. Edwin (New Delhi)

THE honour of being Republican India's first President has been bestowed on one of the closest associates of Mahatma Gandhi. Dr. Rajendra Prasad, who was sworn in as President on January 26th, was in fact the first outstanding leader from Eastern India to cast his lot with the Mahatma.

Lawyer, administrator, scholar, educationist, Dr. Rajendra Prasad—popularly known as "Rajen Babu" throughout India—has a record of national service that can hardly be equalled by any other Indian leader today. Throughout his long career of public service, which began more than 30 years ago in association with Gandhiji, Rajen Babu has stood for those very ideals that made the Mahatma the idol of India's millions.

Not so well known abroad as Mahatma Gandhi or Pandit Nehru, quiet, unassuming Dr. Rajendra Prasad has always been a man of simple habits. Not an orator, he is an effective speaker, driving home his point with passionate sincerity. A zealous reformer, his life has been dominated by two passions: the education of the poor and the uplift of the masses. Like many other Indian leaders, he was a lawyer before he entered the political arena. His legal practice at the Patna High Court brought him several thousands annually, but when he joined the Non-Co-operation Movement in 1920 his bank balance hardly exceeded a £. Most of his money was spent in helping poor students to pay for their education.

His entry into politics was almost dramatic. Gandhi, then hardly known in India, had just returned to the country of his birth from South Africa and launched his first campaign to better the lot of indigo workers in Champaran District, in Rajendra Prasad's province of Bihar. Gandhiji's agitation not only led to the Champaran Agrarian Act of 1918, but brought Rajen Babu to the forefront of India's fight for freedom.

The years that followed—years marked with growing political unrest and a widening of the rift between the Indian National Congress and the Government of the day—established Dr. Rajendra Prasad not only as the undisputed leader of Bihar, but as one of the leading figures in India. Like others engaged in the Non-Co-operation Movement and political agitation, Rajen Babu underwent imprisonment and hardship. The year 1934 witnessed the second major turn in Rajen Babu's life. An asthma patient, he was released from prison on the advice of a Medical Board. It was a year of calamity for his province, the year of the disastrous Bihar Earthquake. In ill health, Rajen Babu ignored the advice of his physicians and decided to serve the people of quake-stricken Bihar, the people he had loved and helped from his early years. His devotion and service brought many tributes, many an honour. In the same year he was called upon to preside over the Indian National Congress—a responsibility he shouldered again in the

crucial year 1939 when Subhas Bose, owing to party differences, resigned the Presidentship of the Congress.

The war intervened bringing in its wake a new outlook, new forces that changed the Indian political scene. The changes were apparent not only in India. Labour came to power in Britain and with it began a new chapter in Indo-British relations. The developments that followed the visit of the Cabinet Mission are all too recent events to need recapitulation. Preceding the transfer of power, an Interim Government was formed in 1946, and Dr. Rajendra Prasad was appointed Minister of Food and Agriculture. He continued to hold this portfolio under the first National Government of the Dominion of India, relinquishing it on being elected Congress President in 1947. In December, 1946, he was elected President of the Constituent Assembly, and it is a tribute to Rajen Babu's guiding influence that he should become the first President under the constitution setting up India as a sovereign, democratic Republic.

Such has been the career of Rajendra Prasad the lawyer, the politician, the administrator. But that is only half the story: Rajen Babu, now in his 66th year, is an equally famous figure in the field of literature and education. A linguist (he speaks seven languages), Dr. Rajendra Prasad has in turn been Professor of English, History and Economics, and Law. At the time when he joined the Non-Co-operation Movement, he was a member of the Patna University Senate. He resigned the post and established a National University—Bihar *Vidyapith*—guiding its affairs as Vice-Chancellor through very difficult years.

Having received his early education at the feet of a Muslim divine, the first languages he mastered were Urdu and Persian. Later he studied Hindi and Sanskrit: a recognised Hindi scholar, twice he has been President of the All-India Hindi Literary Conference; among his many works is one devoted to the "study of Sanskrit the right way." His autobiography (in Hindi) is regarded as a masterpiece in that language, written in a style at once simple and vivid. Another well-known book by Dr. Rajendra Prasad is *India Divided*, published both in English and Hindi. It is not only an important contribution to Indian literature but is an excellent example of the author's foresight and political wisdom. (The book was written before the partition of the sub-continent.)

Of a philosophic temperament, Dr. Rajendra Prasad combines in his versatile personality the idealist and the practical thinker, the dreamer and the politician. Weak in body, he is a pillar of moral strength, drawing his inspiration from the Gandhian philosophy of non-violence and truth. To sum up this account one can do no better than to quote his words with which he commended the new constitution to the people of India: "Let us launch on this new enterprise of running our independent Republic with confidence, with truth and non-violence and, above all, with heart within and God above."

THE INTERNATIONAL POSITION OF THE REPUBLIC OF INDIA

by M. Ruthnaswamy (Madras)

THE inauguration of the Sovereign Republic of India on January 26, 1950, was one of the biggest landmarks of contemporary history. One has only to look at a large-scale map of Asia, remembering the great Lord Salisbury's advice that one must have large-scale maps when one studies Asiatic affairs, in order to realise how the geographical position of India indicates its international importance. It stands midway between Europe and Asia—the Asia that has counted in history, i.e., Far Eastern Asia. Partition has not altered this relationship, for it has added only one more neighbour to the West. The seas whose waves beat on the Republic's 6,000 miles of coasts, place it on one of the great cross-roads of the world. Geography calls India to prominence in international affairs.

This important position of India has been acknowledged ever since the country came to be known to the other nations of the world. The Portuguese, the Dutch, the French, and all the great British rulers of India realised her value as a link in the chain of empire. Not all of them could put their ideas in the picturesque language of one of the greatest of them. Lord Curzon called India the pivot of the British Empire in the East, "for towards her or into her orbit centrifugal forces which none appears able to resist draws every wandering star." In recent years, two world wars have confirmed the strategic importance of India in the global warfare of today, and have shown how the defence of India is essential to the protection of other countries like Ceylon, Burma, Malaya and Iran and Iraq and Australia and South Africa against aggression. All that Admiral Mahan said in his book, *The Problem of Asia*, written 50 years ago on the strategic importance of India in any scheme of the defence of the countries of Middle Asia, has been proved beyond doubt.

With the coming of independence there has come to the people and Government of India a still greater realisation of its international importance. No longer is the conduct of India's relations with other countries in foreign hands. India had on the morrow of independence, and ever since, the most international-minded of Indian statesmen as its Prime Minister and Minister of External Affairs. At a time when most members of the Congress party were nationalists of the narrowest vision and looked upon internationalism as the enemy of the pure creed of Indian Nationalism, Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru was distinguished for his knowledge of international affairs and his international sympathies. It was no wonder, therefore, that one of his first acts was to establish embassies and legations in most of the important countries. The 1949-50 Budget of the External Affairs Department amounts to Rs. 20,594,000 out of total expenditure of Rs. 3,240,000,000.

Also the commercial relations of India have become more important than ever before. Indian trade and manufactures have occupied a prominent position in the countries

of the Middle East, Indian textiles have gone to Afghanistan, Iran and Iraq, and trading communities from India are entrenched in strong positions in Kenya, Zanzibar, and in Fiji. The "rupee area" includes portions of Africa, Arabia, Burma, Thailand and the East Indies. The old trade of the United Kingdom with India has been restored since the war but the trade with the U.S.A. has increased beyond what it was before, and so have imports from Australia and other countries.

India's industrial position is also strong. It has recovered from the post-war depression of 1946 to 1947 and from the dislocations consequent on partition. The production of iron ore has reached 96 per cent of the pre-war level, and her output of coal is about 30 million tons a year. She reached a production of 1.4 million tons of steel during the war which has not been maintained since, on account of the frequent strikes, but 1949 has seen a welcome diminution of this evil. The production of cement compares favourably with pre-war figures, while cotton textiles, India's premier industry, continues to occupy that position. In the manufacture of machinery, India has reached record levels in many items, mainly of light machinery. In addition her chemical industry is growing

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steadily. India has thus maintained her pre-war place as the fifth greatest industrial nation in the world. Next to Japan, which is already regaining its old position in industry, she is the most industrialised country in Asia. Furthermore, her financial position is probably the soundest in Asia. From being a debtor country she has emerged as a creditor country in respect of the United Kingdom, and has begun granting loans to other countries like Thailand and Burma. Although her overall economic position is by no means as strong as it should be—she has still to depend for her food on imports from outside, and the standard

of living of her people is about the lowest in the world—her trade relations with a large number of countries contribute to increase her international importance also in the economic field.

It is understandable, therefore, that the Republic of India aspires to be the leader of Asia. That ambition may have to reckon with the recent victory of Communism in China and with the recovery of Japan. But her political stability, her strategic value, her economic advantages and her historic culture make her one of the countries that have to be counted with in international affairs.

LETTERS TO THE EDITOR

Guiding Lines of the New China

Sir.—It is to be hoped that Mr. Mervyn Jones' naive enthusiasm for the Chinese Communists' Common Programme will not mislead those who have not studied this document. The essential feature of the Communist Government's constitution is the wholly unlimited power concentrated in its highest organ, the Central People's Government Council of 56 members, with Mao Tse-tung as chairman. This Council makes war, peace and treaties, controls finance, and defence, enacts and interprets laws of State, determines administrative policy, appoints or dismisses the Prime Minister and his colleagues in the State Administrative Council (the second organ of the Government), all heads of minor Government organisations, appoints and dismisses the judges at its pleasure.

True, the above details do not appear in the Common Programme (they were published separately when the Peking Government was established last October), but the studious centralisation of all authority is plain to see throughout the Programme.

Thus Article 15 enjoins that the local People's Government throughout the provinces must obey, each in turn, the one above it and "all shall obey the Central People's Government." Rather disingenuously Mr. Mervyn Jones only quotes part of Article 19, the first half of which provides that extraneous "supervisory organs" are to be instituted in all local councils to keep watch on their doings.

These facts make nonsense of the Programme's assertion that "the State power of the People's Republic of China belongs to the people." "This Republic realises the people's democratic dictatorship." It is totalitarian government by a small clique, reaching out into every detail.

Much has been made of the Communists' concession to private enterprise. But on this the Common Programme says: "The economy based on co-operation between State and private capital is of a State Capitalist nature." We know already what this means. State bureaux are being formed to take over various lines of trade and merchants who hold contracts in these lines are obliged to surrender them to the bureau.

With regard to Article 5 promising freedom of thought, speech and publication, Mr. Mervyn Jones'

attention may be called to an article in *The Times* of January 7th, by its Peking correspondent, reporting the suppression of one Peking paper (among many) which was distinguished by its independent criticism of all political parties, Kuomintang, Communist and others. This, it was officially explained, was done "in order to put an end to counter-revolutionary propaganda; and thus protect the freedom of speech and writing of the people." So we know just what Article 5 really means. Incidentally, almost the first act of the Communists on gaining Peking was to stop all cabling by foreign correspondents.

Mr. Mervyn Jones describes Article 6 (on the emancipation of women) as "a tremendous revolution in mores." I watched the emancipation of Chinese women after the Revolution for 23 years—the multiplication of schools and colleges for girls in every province, co-education in universities, the entry of girls into every walk of life, not only as nurses and teachers, but as lawyers, doctors, even bankers, and in Government service. It was the most striking feature of Nationalist China. In 1929 the Kuomintang passed a law permitting girls to break off distasteful marriage engagements made by their parents (of which Miss Butterfly Wu, a cinema star, at once took advantage); and another law securing to a daughter an equal share with her brothers in their parent's patrimony, which was at once successfully invoked by a girl at Tsinanfu. Women voted equally with men for the National Assembly of 1947, and sat in it.

Mr. Mervyn Jones describes Article 46 (on education) as foreshadowing "a complete and exciting break with . . . the old lumber of out-of-date Chinese Scholarship." In 1905 the Empress-Dowager abolished the old classical forms of State examination and substituted Western learning, which became the general model in schools and colleges. In the years immediately preceding the Japanese invasion there was a considerable revival of the study of the Chinese classics for the sake of their fine ethical teaching. But the ever-increasing flow of Chinese students, men and girls, since the beginning of this century to Western universities, well prepared for the work in them, shows that the Communist schools will be no novelty—except in their inculcation of Marxist teaching.

May I, in conclusion, remind Mr. Mervyn Jones of an ancient Chinese maxim, "Listen to a man's words but observe his deeds." It is particularly applicable to the Common Programme.

Yours, etc.,

O. M. GREEN.

Virginia Water.

THE PEACEFUL CONQUEST OF TIBET

by Norman Colgan

ONE of the avowed intentions of the new Communist government of Peking is the "liberation" of Tibet.

In recent times liberation has come to mean its exact opposite and we are all too familiar with the process that it usually involves. On the other hand, peaceful Chinese infiltration into Tibet has been going on for generations and it may well be this, and not armed invasion, that will prove decisive.

There is no doubt that the Chinese, generally speaking, feel definitely superior to, and look down upon, the Tibetans. And the latter, being singularly proud and sensitive, resent being considered barbarians. Nevertheless, Chinese colonisation of the border districts of Tibet has been accomplished with a surprising lack of violence. Many villages that were formerly entirely Tibetan have become completely or partially Chinese. There are several reasons for this. In the first place, population pressure makes the fallow fields of the Tibetans very tempting to the Chinese. Secondly, Tibet is the traditional refuge for Chinese of the nearby communities whenever rebellion or banditry is rife. Thirdly, in certain districts on the Kansu-Tibetan border the Tibetan population appears to be dying out. The reasons for this decline are complex, but a prominent factor is that in this part of Tibet one out of every three males is a monk. Also the Tibetan resistance to disease is less than that of the Chinese.

The impact of Chinese culture upon the Tibetans is manifested in many ways—from changes in habits of dress and building to language and nomenclature. In religion and occupation the Chinese and Tibetans of the border region are similar; in race and language they are dissimilar. In saying this it is important to remember that the words "similar" and "dissimilar" represent two extremes. Though the Chinese and Tibetans have the same religion there are infinite variations both of kind and degree. But because of mutual tolerance the differences in their beliefs have had no fundamental effects on their cultural relationships.

The faith of the Tibetans is, in fact, far different from that of the border Chinese. Tibetan Buddhism has been greatly modified by the Tantrik doctrines of Hinduism and the beliefs and practices of the early pre-Buddhist Bön religion. In general, the Chinese adhere to the "Three Great Religions," tolerantly making Confucianism, Buddhism and Taoism part of their religious system. In predominantly Chinese districts, where in history and culture the Chinese spring from the main stem of Chinese tradition, the cult of ancestor worship and the ideals of Confucianism predominate. In the border districts, where Tibetan influence is strong, the Chinese include a greater amount of Buddhist practice and ritual. Despite their insistence in styling themselves members of the "great sect," i.e., Confucianism, they devote their time and money, in religious matters, to the performance of Tibetan

Buddhist practices.

Not only is the content of Tibetan religious belief quite different from that of the Chinese, but the Tibetan is far more innately devout than his Chinese opposite. In Tibet, the highest pursuit of man is the search for wisdom and religion enters into the very fabric of everyday life. The Chinese, on the other hand, are more materialistic and their tradition is dominated by the tie with the past.

Again, when it is said that the Chinese and Tibetans are racially dissimilar, one must qualify the word. Both are unquestionably Mongoloid and, in the absence of any real scientific data, one can only say that the Chinese and Tibetans differ in appearance to about the same degree as a Frenchman differs from a typical Spaniard. The process of infiltration over a number of generations has, of course, given rise to many intermediate types, but these types do not invalidate the essential difference between the two peoples.

Culture contact between Chinese and Tibetans is, almost without exception, one-sided—its agents being Chinese. For instance, Tibetans go into Chinese country to visit or trade, but they do not attempt to settle down. In every instance intermarriage is between a Chinese man and a Tibetan woman—never between a Tibetan man and a Chinese woman. This can be explained partly because the Chinese migrants are men and partly because of the inroads made on the male Tibetan population by the lamaseries. Another reason is that the Tibetans find Chinese women insipid compared with their own countrywomen whose background of greater social freedom makes them much more individual and vigorous. The Chinese, albeit shamefacedly, admit that Tibetan women, with their freedom of action and out-of-doors activity, are definitely attractive to them.

Whenever a young Chinese is taken into a Tibetan home as a son-in-law, he naturally becomes as like a Tibetan in dress, mannerisms and speech as he can. His children will be brought up as Tibetan, and after a generation or so, only a Tibetan nickname, such as "Chinese Boy" may be left to indicate that there is any Chinese blood in the family.

When a Chinese marries a Tibetan wife and establishes his own home, however, he generally makes an effort to set up a Chinese home and to maintain the Chinese manner of living and outlook. Although the girls of the family will copy the Tibetans in dress and manners, the boys will be brought up with the idea that they are Chinese. Thus these half-Tibetan homes become *foci* of Chinese influence and change.

In a strictly Chinese community the children of mixed marriages are often referred to slightly as "half-Tibetans," but in a mixed community they seem to have the same status as those who are entirely Chinese or entirely Tibetan. For though the Tibetans on occasion resent

Chinese domination and can have strong feelings against them, it is rather for what they represent in outside influence than for the fact that they have Chinese blood in their veins. The Tibetan virtue is certainly tolerance, and if the individual acts in accordance with custom and usage the Tibetan cares little whether he comes from China or Chile.

The Chinese undoubtedly possess a stronger culture which, reinforced by successive waves of emigrants, cannot fail to have a profound effect on Tibetan life as a whole. The steady pressure of a fertile race, beginning with infiltration and ending frequently with dispossession or absorption can only have one result.

But it is the influence of Tibetan Buddhism, with its humanising and gentle doctrine, that remains most firmly

entrenched in the Chinese migrant's way of life when all other Tibetan characteristics have vanished. It is the custom among Western scholars to deride the Tantrik doctrines of Tibet as a hotchpotch of gods, devils and black superstition. If, indeed, that were all there was to it, would its influence remain so firm on a race whose own profound philosophy has persisted for thousands of years?

One way or another it seems that Tibet cannot remain unchanged by the pressure of outside events. At the end of the last century Lafcadio Hearn, mourning the passing of Old Japan and its fairy-like world of exquisite manners and delicate art, wrote: "Evil winds from the West are blowing over *Horai*; and its magical atmosphere, alas! is shrinking away before them. . . ." Perhaps we, too, are witnessing the end of a unique way of life in Central Asia.

THE OUTLOOK FOR AFGHANISTAN

by Sir Giles Squire

A SMALL country, especially one that has no outlet to the sea, must inevitably depend to a very great extent not only on its relations with its immediate neighbours but also on the relations of those neighbours with one another. It is indeed not only for climatic reasons that Afghanistan has been called the Switzerland of Asia. Her importance in world affairs, her foreign policy and even her physical boundaries have been largely determined by the changing relations between her two powerful neighbours, Russia and, up to 1947, Great Britain. And it is in the light of Anglo-Russian relations that it is of particular interest to consider the present position.

British interference in Afghanistan, leading to the two unfortunate wars of the nineteenth century, was due mainly to the fear lest the country might fall under foreign domination. And it was this fear that led us to insist that Afghanistan's foreign relations should be controlled by the Viceroy of India, thus denying to the country the right of full independence. It was not until 1919, after the third Afghan war, that the emergence of the League of Nations, the advance in world opinion and the temporary eclipse of Russian imperialism satisfied us that the retention of this control was neither essential nor practicable. King Amanulla was inclined at first to favour Russia and even employed Russian pilots in the Afghan airforce. His successors, however, realised that the character of British imperialism had undergone a profound change and that they need no longer fear aggression from across the Indian border. Their main preoccupation was the maintenance of their newly found independence, but less and less did this involve animosity towards, or suspicion of the British Government. Under the wise guidance of her Prime Minister, H.R.H. Sardar Mohammed Hashim Khan, who held office from 1929 to 1946, Afghanistan succeeded in steering a middle course and in maintaining her neutrality throughout the second world war. This was a task of no little difficulty when the British Empire stood alone in a hostile world. The story is told that after the fall of Crete, when the German forces seemed irresistible, the Italian Minister in Kabul tried to convince the Afghan Prime

Minister that it would be greatly to his advantage to throw in his lot with the Axis. Hashim Khan is said to have replied: "Your Excellency, you tell me that the German forces have captured Crete. Crete I understand to be a small island in the Mediterranean. Is it not England that you are fighting? Have you captured England yet?"

When the German invasion of Russia forced the Soviet Union into the Allied camp, the Afghan position was even more difficult. Islam is naturally antipathetic to Communism with its hostility to all forms of religion, and Afghanistan is the strictest of all Muslim countries. The Afghan Government did not wish to do more than maintain correct relations with her northern neighbour and clung tenaciously to her neutrality. With the removal of the German menace confidence in British intentions and admiration for Mr. Churchill's magnificent leadership and for the British record in the war led the Afghans to look more and more to Britain for her friendship and assistance. The compass indeed seemed to be set fair for the consolidation of Anglo-Afghan friendship when the bombshell of the British abdication in India—for that is what it was in Afghan eyes—upset all calculations.

The treaties arising out of the three Afghan wars had never been popular with the Afghans, who considered that these had robbed them of territories that were properly theirs; but as long as the British remained in India the Afghans were prepared to abide loyally by their terms. As early as 1942, however, they stated clearly that if the British ever left India they would consider themselves at liberty to reopen the question of the frontier, and that in no case would they be prepared to see their kinsfolk in the North West Frontier Province placed under Hindu domination. They formulated no precise demands, largely because they did not really believe that the British would, or indeed, could ever leave. When, therefore, in 1947 they were faced at very short notice, not with a Hindu Government in Delhi, but with a Government of fellow Muslims in Pakistan they were in a quandary. They asked the British Government to settle the matter to Afghan satisfaction before the hand-over took place, and have been severely

critical of our failure to meet their wishes. Even had time allowed of fuller discussion it is obvious that the matter was really one that must be negotiated and settled with His Majesty's Government in London.

To understand Afghan-Pakistan relations it is necessary to turn for a moment to the N.W.F. Province of what is now Pakistan. This consists of the administered districts which were legally and constitutionally part of British India, and the tribal territories, which were outside the jurisdiction of the Provincial Government and controlled by the Governor General. The tribal areas are inhabited mostly by Pathan tribes who are closely connected with, and often a part of the tribes living in Afghanistan. They commonly style themselves Afghans. The settled districts west of the river Indus were also inhabited mainly by people of Pathan stock, but with a very large admixture of both Muslims and Hindus from the Punjab and elsewhere. The Afghan Government's first idea was to ask that the whole of this area should be renamed Pathanistan in order to emphasise its separate nature, and that its inhabitants should be granted full local autonomy. Unfortunately at the time of partition there was an Indian Congress party Government in the N.W.F., and before it could be decided whether the province should be a part of India or of Pakistan, it was necessary to hold a referendum in the settled districts. The local Congress party, chiefly in order to enlist support for union with India, but also with the deliberate intention of upsetting future relations between Pakistan and Afghanistan, seized with enthusiasm on the idea of a "Pathanistan" province. This move, while it made no difference to the result of the referendum, was entirely successful in discrediting the name of Pathanistan and its underlying idea in Pakistan eyes. The new Pakistan Government immediately suspected the Afghan Government of plotting with India against Pakistan, and was not, therefore, inclined to tolerate any Afghan interference across her border. It is clear that on a strictly legal interpretation Pakistan was, and is correct in maintaining that she has succeeded to all British rights and obligations east of the Afghan frontier, and that Afghanistan cannot properly interfere in such a matter. But Afghan national sentiment is

involved and Afghans claim that something should be done to meet their point of view. All efforts to come to an agreement on the matter have so far proved abortive.

It is most unfortunate that the controversy should be a bar to the cordial understanding which responsible statesmen on both sides know to be essential. For Pakistan, Afghan goodwill is as necessary as it ever was for the British Government, in order to prevent the spread of Communism across her frontiers; and if Afghanistan is to retain her ancient and honourable position as a bulwark against the spread of Russian imperialism, which today differs very little from that of Tsarist times, it is obvious that she equally requires the backing of a strong and friendly Pakistan, if only to secure the free passage of goods of all sorts which cannot reach Afghanistan by any other route. Pakistan is in fact the lynch pin on which any serious effort to combat Communism in this area must hinge. For this reason, if for no other, Pakistan deserves all the assistance that Britain can give her. It is all the more tragic, therefore, that Pakistan should feel, as she does, that she is being cold-shouldered by the British Government, and that her wellbeing, compared with that of India is of little interest to the British people.

And what of the future? Afghanistan is a poor country. The inhospitable nature of the hills on the Pakistan border and the courage of her tribes are a strong deterrent to any would-be invaders from the East, though they would be no defence against modern weapons and airborne troops. But on the North the country is open, and the river Oxus for many miles forms the Russo-Afghan frontier. So far, the U.S.S.R. appears to be entirely uninterested in Afghanistan. There is a barter agreement on a not very large scale between the two countries, but little general coming or going across the frontier where roads are almost non-existent. The Afghans will not lightly surrender their independence to anyone, but alone they could do little to oppose a Soviet Union determined on expansion either physical or ideological in this area. Britain, their traditional makeweight *vis à vis* Russia, has gone. It is essential that Pakistan should be able and willing to take our place. Of this so far there seems little prospect.

RESULTS OF THE BRIBERY PROBE IN CEYLON

by Austin de Silva (Colombo)

TEN members of the premier local body in Ceylon, the Colombo Municipal Council, comprising one-third of the strength of the Council, have been found guilty of bribery and corruption by the Commissioner appointed to inquire into charges against those members.

These include the Mayor himself, Mr. R. F. S. de Mel. Mr. de Mel did not appear before the Commissioner, Mr. M. W. H. de Silva, K.C., when he was summoned to do so to answer the charges against him, but through his lawyers, requested a postponement of the inquiry relating to him. The Commissioner, however, refused to grant the request, contending that Mr. de Mel had been given enough time to prepare his defence. The inquiry into charges against him was, therefore, conducted in his absence, and

in the absence of his lawyers who withdrew when their request to postpone the inquiry was refused.

The other nine members found guilty are Messrs. T. Leslie Perera, M. C. M. Ghouse, J. M. Gnaprakasam, G. A. P. Fernando, A. M. de Alwis, H. P. Perera, G. W. H. de Silva, M. F. Ghany and C. Abeyawardene. Three of them, Messrs. T. Leslie Perera, G. W. H. de Silva and H. P. Perera, were re-elected members of the Colombo Municipal Council at the triennial general elections to the Council, which took place a couple of days before the Bribery Commissioner's findings were published. They, therefore, *ipso facto*, lost their seats, necessitating by-elections in three Wards. The others who were found guilty were beaten at the polls.

Fifteen members out of a Council of thirty were summoned before the Commissioner to answer various charges of bribery and corruption. Of these five have been exonerated. They are Messrs. R. A. de Mel (a former Mayor), C. de S. Wijeyeratne, P. Givendrasinghe, M. J. Mendis and W. J. Soysa. Of these five, all except Mr. Mendis stood for election but only Messrs. R. A. de Mel and C. de S. Wijeyeratne were successful. The ten members who have been found guilty automatically lose their civic rights for a period of five years. They will not be registered as voters, nor can they vote at any election of any public body in the Island during this period.

When informed of the findings of the Bribery Commissioner, the only comment Mr. S. W. R. D. Bandaranaike, Minister of Local Government, made was that he had nothing to say except that the fact that "a third of the total membership of the premier local body in Ceylon has been found guilty of bribery and corruption clearly showed a deplorable state of affairs." He added, however, that no inference could be drawn from this with regard to the conditions in the other local bodies in the Island.

The Bribery Commission was appointed as a result of continued agitation over a period of five years for the institution of a public inquiry into the conduct of Colombo's Municipal Councillors.

The Commission first held its sittings *in camera*. Despite various drawbacks and difficulties chiefly relating to the reluctance of witnesses to come forward and give evidence, its work was conducted with expedition and the report was submitted two days after the public sittings were concluded and a week before the Municipal Council elections commenced. But the findings were published by the Governor General a couple of days after the conclusion of the elections.

Eleven charges of bribery and corruption have been established against the Mayor, Mr. R. F. S. de Mel, who, despite the fact that he did not defend himself before the Commissioner, went to the polls and lost so badly that he had to surrender his deposit. The charges against him chiefly comprised the giving of money and gifts corruptly to members of the Municipal Council as a reward for exercising their votes in his favour at the Mayoral ballot. The

indictments against other members were principally those of soliciting and receiving gifts in connection with the voting at the Mayoral elections. Two charges were established against Mr. T. Leslie Perera, three against Mr. M. C. M. Ghouse, three against Mr. J. H. Gnanaprakasam, three against Mr. G. A. P. Fernando, four against Mr. A. M. de Alwis, one against Mr. H. L. P. Perera, one against Mr. G. W. H. de Silva, two against Mr. H. C. Abeywardene, and one against Mr. M. F. Ghany.

As a result of this, early legislation is likely to be introduced by the Government of Ceylon making it clear that it is an offence for any member of a Municipal Council, Urban Council, Town Council, or village Committee to give, receive or solicit any gift or advantage as an inducement to influence him to do any official act. The penalty to be meted out in such cases where a Commissioner appointed by the Governor General holds a member guilty of such an offence and reports such finding to the Governor General is to be specifically laid down as a deprivation of his seat and of his civic rights for a period of five years. Specific provision is also to be made that such a finding is not to be questioned in any Court of Law.

The Government propose to introduce this new legislation by amending the existing provisions of the Ordinance for the Prevention of Bribery and Corruption of Members of Public Bodies. This Ordinance, which was enacted in 1943, makes it an offence to give or to receive gratifications by a member of a public body, but the Courts of Law are empowered to deal with such offences. It also makes no reference to the appointment of Commissioners by the Governor General to investigate allegations of bribery and corruption among members of public bodies and to the implementation of their findings. Thus, whenever such a Commissioner is appointed, a special Ordinance has to be passed by Parliament giving legal sanction to the Commission and according immunity to witnesses and also providing that those found guilty should vacate their seats and should be disqualified from being registered as a voter for a period of five years. In the amended legislation that is proposed to be made, provision will be found for the appointment of Commissioners and for the implementing of their findings.

THE RUBY FIELDS OF BURMA

by W. L. Speight

IT is now well over 300 years since the ruby fields of Burma first began shipping supplies of this valuable gem to Europe, although it is believed that for 2,000 years before they were enriching the gem collections of Asia. It seems that right through the ages these rubies have generally been found in the gravel known as ruby earth, rarely mixed in the matrix. The only exception seems to be at the top of the Dattaw stream, where they occur in crystalline limestone. These rubies are often of opaque material and of indifferent formation.

Long before the Portuguese opened the sea route from Europe to the East, European jewellers knew that Burma was a rich source of rubies, and a certain quantity of stones were obtained from time to time by the arduous overland

trade routes. Little in the technical sense, however, was known about the Burmese ruby fields, that ignorance continuing even after European ships called with increasing frequency at Eastern ports. In the 18th century the Burmese king, Alompra, apparently realised he had a valuable economic asset in these rubies. He set out to organise their recovery on a scale never before attempted in the Irrawaddy country.

From then and until Britain took over Burma, occasional European travellers managed to reach these remote regions, all agreeing on the difficulty of getting to the mines. Father Giuseppe d'Amato, an Italian priest, said in 1830 that the grip of the king on the operation of the mines was so secure that it was most difficult for a man to steal any

of the large stones, which were by law royal property.

Most of the stones from the Burmese ruby fields have distinctive characteristics. In many cases the expert can say from which deposit a gem was taken, even though the different deposits may only lie a few hundred yards apart. Some ruby buyers consider this information of first importance. Rubies of all grades from Upper Engyok in the Mogok Valley bear in the rough a strong resemblance to the rubies from the Lower Engyok, which is only a few hundred yards away. Obviously the basic source is the same, yet there are differences.

Rubies from both these areas may be so brilliant that even in the raw state they have a high natural polish. It has been noted that while full colour rubies from Lower Engyok are greatly esteemed, apparently similar stones from Upper Engyok often show up too dark after cutting, having an unwelcome "bricky" shade. Such technical information was difficult to obtain from the Burmese in the early years of the 19th century, much of it being acquired by experience after the slow extension of British rule in this area.

Rangoon was the centre of the world's ruby trade long before the British occupation of Burma, for French and British trading posts had been established there in the 17th century. These posts on the river delta were regularly visited by the merchants from the interior. Not only Burmese but also Talangs and Shans among other Asian peoples called on these European traders with rich stores of rubies. This was not always a peaceful transaction, although invariably profitable to European gem merchants. Really serious cause for dispute only arose towards the end of the 18th century, when there were differences between the British settlers and some of the local princes, but General Erskine settled that matter to the satisfaction of the British East India Company. About 25 years later, in 1820, a far more serious situation developed when Burmese tribesmen entered territory leased to the company and refused to leave. The resultant skirmishes eventually assumed the proportions of a war. Lightning campaigns were unknown in those leisurely days, so that it was not until 1824 that British troops landed at the delta and occupied Rangoon. That was the real beginning of British control in Burma.

Twenty-five years later, with the British sphere of influence vastly extended, the ruby mines were still under the control of the Burmese king. The southern provinces of Aracan and Tenasserim had been British since 1826, and in 1852 there followed the annexation to India of the northern province of Pegu, which developments did not extend anywhere near to the ruby country. They did, however, seem to have a restricting effect on output. In the 'fifties of the last century the mines were not so important a source of revenue to the Burmese king. It was estimated that in a good year they brought him an income of some £15,000 a year, but this large sum was a mere fraction of the revenues he had obtained from those mines at a much earlier period.

To that time the Burmese ruby mines had been worked on the most primitive lines. Much prospecting and gem recovery was done by Burmese, but Chinese also had a big share in the business both as diggers and traders. A quota of the output had to be paid into the king's treasury, the rest remaining for the operator to dispose of as he wished. Nothing in the shape of control of trading or output was in force, with consequently a heavy traffic in stolen rubies.

The illicit dealing was so large that there are no reliable statistics of the mine output in the days of the Burmese kings. A change for the better was apparent in the middle of the 19th century. By that time the European engineer, Bredemeyer, had arrived in Mandalay to take up his appointment as manager of the ruby fields. He was instrumental in inducing the Burmese authorities to allow British ships to sail up the rivers, leading to the formation of the Flotilla Company. This cheapened transport costs on stores and machinery needed to work the mines.

But such improvements were introduced so slowly that it was some years before they had any marked effect on the operation of the fields. Political changes also provided a background against which production fluctuated. After the 1867 treaty a Burmese embassy was received in London by Queen Victoria, but the Chinese frontier remained troubled, the raiders being supported surreptitiously by King Mindone of Burma. That was all too obvious when he received Sir Douglas Forsyth, the British envoy, with a great display of Oriental pomp in Mandalay, yet refused to allow British troops to pass on through the city of palaces and pagodas. Before he gave way in the end, much pressure had to be applied. Events moved rather more swiftly after he died in 1878, to be succeeded by Thebaw. At that time a fair number of British troops were in Burma and several intrepid British travellers had penetrated the country right up to the remote Shan states, learning much about the ruby fields. In the years that followed there was flagrant defiance of the treaties with the British, outrages of many sorts, the result of it all a British expedition in 1885 under General Prendergast. Within a month the king had surrendered and was sent into exile.

With Upper Burma, its capital Mandalay, under the Union Jack, the ruby mines were under British control. In the succeeding years London took increasing interest in the mining possibilities of the Shan states. The Bond Street jewellers, Streeter & Co., entered into an agreement with the Government of India in May, 1887, under which they were to receive the concession to work the ruby fields. Two months later the agreement had to be suspended because of certain technical difficulties. The authorities decided to introduce a system of claim staking to be worked by licensed diggers. In 1889 Mr. Edwin W. Streeter resumed negotiations, and in February an agreement was signed in the India office. The new company to operate the ruby fields on a modern basis was to be floated by N. M. Rothschild & Co., of London. It was backed by a number of prominent London houses. Sir L. Griffin, a leading mining engineer, went to Burma to submit a detailed report on the fields. This was received in March, 1890, and was so favourable that the Burma Ruby Mining Co., started off with great expectations.

On the whole the productive areas in the ruby tract are small and scattered, the main mining operations being done in an area of less than three square miles. The rubies are found in various crystalline forms, often heavily twinned and distorted. Many of them are known locally by Burmese names, according to shape, such as "bondo" or drum-shaped for a six-sided prism ruby like an emerald, or "bondo-bya," flat drum shaped, which is similar to the "bondo" but that it is more squashed out and flattish. These types are fairly common. During the past 50 years or so Burmese ruby production has taken a downward

trend. Between 1904 and 1908 output had an average value of £84,000 a year, but between 1909 and 1913 the average value fell to £63,200, and during the war years of 1914-18 it was only £41,817. The armistice brought a revival, for between 1919 and 1923 production reached an average value of £60,660. Then prices fluctuated severely, as demand became uncertain. This and other difficulties forced the company into liquidation in 1925, since when the properties were worked on tribute.

The subsequent history of the ruby fields has been one of declining output, yet modern mining experts have said that the Mogok fields still have a bright future, as there are at least 600 square miles of territory still available for working. A realistic assessment of the prospects, however, would indicate that the best days of the ruby fields have passed, for there are no signs of any spectacular revival. Down through the ages many remarkable rubies have been recovered on these fields. One of the finest discoveries of

the present century was that of Armistice Day, 1919, the famous "Peace Ruby," a 42 carat gem of such superb quality that after it had been cut to 24 carats it still had a market value of 300,000 rupees, or £12,000. Such finds are rare, for the average stone rarely exceeds five carats. The largest ruby found in the last century is that presented to King Mindone some years before he died. This valuable stone was the size of a duck's egg, the chance find of a Burmese on the ruby fields.

There are probably rich stores of rubies in Burma at the present time, but the true stone now has to compete with synthetic rubies, which are much easier to produce than synthetic diamonds, and are of their type excellent gemstones. Chemically and crystallographically they are perfect—in the eyes of the expert just too perfect. Thus the natural ruby is still in demand because of those irregularities which cannot be defined and cannot be produced synthetically.

MAURITIUS—Empire's Isle of Sugar

by E. R. Yarham

SUGAR output on the Indian Ocean isle of Mauritius is expected to break all records, according to the latest reports. Just a year back an Economic Commission on the colony's sugar industry announced that production was probably capable of expansion up to 400,000 metric tons annually. That figure looks like being passed this year, for estimates put the harvest at 410,000 tons. The reasons given for this bumper crop, apart from the wider use of new and richer varieties of sugar cane, are the excellent weather conditions which lasted both during the growing and the maturing seasons last year, the development of mechanisation which allowed all the work to be done in time, and finally the opening up of a small acreage of new lands under cane for the first time.

The crop has certainly shown enormous expansion in the last three years, for total production in 1946 amounted to only 290,000 tons. During the war a considerable amount of sugar land was converted to food crops, and in 1945 catastrophic cyclones greatly damaged the industry.

To assist growers the Imperial Government gave a bonus of £1 million on the price of the 1945 crop; granted £5 per acre towards the cost of replanting cane lands previously used for food crops; and made the Mauritius Government a free grant of £50,000 and an interest-free loan of £800,000 for the same purposes. Such money was well expended, for the entire prosperity of the colony is bound up in the sugar industry. The greater part of the plains, consisting of stony but rich clay, is nothing but a vast sugar plantation. Mauritius is the largest single British Colonial producer of sugar, and grows annually over five per cent of the total cane production of the Commonwealth. Sugar, therefore, accounts for practically the whole (97 per cent) of the island's export trade.

Mauritius is not only the largest, but one of the most efficient sugar producing units in the Commonwealth. This is in part due to the natural conditions, which are particularly favourable to the growth of the crop, but more especially to the enterprise, energy and intelligence of

planters and cultivators. To safeguard the industry a cyclone and sugar insurance fund has been set up, and markets for the Colony's sugar exports are ensured by contracts with the United Kingdom Ministry of Food, which buys the entire export crop. The planting of sugar canes and their manufacture into raw sugar has been the principal occupation of Mauritius since the 18th century, and today the majority of all the workers in the island are employed in the cane-fields, while several thousand labourers earn their living in the island's 30 sugar factories. There are minimum wage regulations, and estate workers have free housing and medical care.

On the estates very extensive cultivating and manuring is practised. Formerly all agricultural operations were employed by hand, but in recent years shortage of labour has led to the introduction of implemental cultivation and the use of tractors on a considerable scale. The stony nature of the soil was a bar to the use of mechanised tools in the past, but means have now been found to overcome this difficulty in part. It is now being realised that one of the most urgent necessities is an improvement in the cultivation methods employed by small planters. Education through field demonstrators is recommended as one means of tackling this problem, and it is also suggested that small planters working in co-operative production units in association with co-operative credit societies could facilitate agricultural extension activities.

Mauritius covers just over 800 square miles, and has a population around 440,000. Port Louis, the capital, is the only harbour available to ocean-going ships. The island was for over a century in the hands of the French, who lost it in Napoleon's day. Many of the permanent settled population are of French origin, and claim descent from the ancient "French Noblesse." The old French laws are largely retained; the French language and a creole patois are spoken all over the island, and debates in the Legislature may take place in either English or French.

THE "ETAS" OF JAPAN: THE END OF A CASTE

by Joseph Kalmer

THE abolition of the caste system in India and the conferment of equality before the law on the "Untouchables," is not being accepted by the Hindu population without resistance. Only a few weeks ago, a case of refusal of access to a Hindu temple had to be brought before the courts, and it will probably take years, if not decades, before caste distinctions in India will disappear not only from the Statute Book, but also from social life.

In Japan this state of affairs has already been achieved; the Etas, or "Untouchables," who were made equal before the law by an Imperial Edict dated October 12th, 1871, have now acquired social equality as well through the superficial democratisation which has followed the Allied occupation of Japan. This change has found expression, among other things, in the fact that the Social Democratic politician Jiitchiro Matsumoto, although of Eta origin, could become Deputy Speaker of the Japanese Upper House.

Remarkably enough, the existence of an "Untouchable" caste in Japan has been known only to a few experts. Who, then, are these Etas?

In all probability, they are the descendants of the primitive inhabitants of Japan, the Ainus, whom the Japanese enslaved when, coming up from the South, they conquered the Island Empire. At any rate, that is the opinion of Professor Manabu Seno, of Waseda University. Other sources, however, hold that the Etas are descended from the Korean captives whom the Japanese brought to the islands from one of their marauding expeditions at the end of the 16th century. A less probable tradition traces their origin to the natural sons of the notorious Shogun Yoritomo, of the Minamoto family, who made himself dictator of Japan, allowing the Emperor to lead only a shadow existence as the supreme religious head of the country.

The Etas are distributed all over Japan. Until recently they lived in ghettos. Separate streets were reserved for them, and there was no Japanese householder in the country who would knowingly have given shelter to an Eta. In their ghettos the Etas had an autonomous administration, whose principal task lay in preventing or rendering avoidable all contact between the Etas and the rest of the population.

The reason alleged by the nominally Buddhist Japanese for the contempt with which they treated the Eta was that they were "unclean." During the era of the Conquest, when the Japanese invaders had robbed the Etas of everything, the latter are said to have been reduced to living on carrion flesh. They tanned the hides of the carrion, and travelling from settlement to settlement, repaired the footwear of the master race. Later, the Etas were employed as slaughterers and executioners, as Buddhism forbids killing; but as all occupations involving

the killing of living things were regarded as being of a debased character, the Etas were treated as outcasts. With the advance of civilisation, a number of occupations became open to them in industry; they became tanners, dealers in skins and hides, bootmakers, boot manufacturers, etc.; they were able even to amass fortunes. But even this did not enable them to rise out of their caste. And though the Japanese ate meat which could be bought only from Etas, a house entered by an Eta thereby became "unclean."

In a sense, the Etas and the Japanese are comparable, respectively, with the Jews under the German Nazis, for in the course of the centuries—particularly when the Japanese were confronted with internal difficulties—the Etas were subjected to persecution and pogroms. The age-old cry, "Blame the Jews!" had a counterpart in Japan and, for instance, after the earthquakes of 1923, the "popular anger" of the Japanese turned against the Koreans and the Etas. The Etas nevertheless managed to survive and their numbers today are estimated at nearly three million, while the numbers of the original Ainu inhabitants have shrunk to 15,000, and they have maintained themselves only on Hokkaido, Japan's northernmost island.

Japanese governments were always aware of the attitude of the Etas towards the State, though after the restoration of Imperial rule in 1868, the "Estate" of the Etas, together with those of all other castes, was abolished. However, this officially imposed equality was rendered illusory by the behaviour of the Japanese; they continued to keep the Etas in isolation and aversion, often with very drastic results. For example, Eta recruits in the Army were maltreated by their non-Eta comrades in barracks, and their life was rendered so intolerable that at one time there was a wave of suicides among them. Later, the recruiting commissions took to grading all young Etas as "unfit for service."

Naturally, in the circumstances the Etas could marry only among themselves. One Eta girl found employment in a strange city and, concealing her origin, became engaged to a Japanese. When he met her parents, he immediately broke the engagement, and when the girl sued him for breach of promise, the court refused to award her damages on the ground that her demand was "contrary to popular feeling"—precisely as the Nazis would have put it.

Sometimes, an Eta who moved to a strange locality might succeed in concealing his origin and attain a comfortable middle class position. But woe betide such an Eta if he was discovered! Though, unlike the Jews under Hitler, he was allowed to keep his money, he was ruthlessly expelled from the social class to which he had raised himself.

During the first World War, when Japan was able to enrich herself in a variety of ways, the chances of the Etas also became brighter; they were able to monopolise certain trades and gather in substantial war profits, so that they

became an economic factor that could not be ignored. In order to enforce their social emancipation, the Etas formed a political party of their own, the *Suiheisha*—though it was never mentioned in any Japanese official publication. The Party had a social-revolutionary programme, but of course they kept it secret, in view of the Japanese law against "dangerous thinking." A German observer at that time described this Party—without justification—as "the most fertile soil for Communism." And on the occasion of the Eta Congress, which was attended by 10,000 delegates, the *Japan Times and Advertiser*, a paper close to the Japanese Foreign Office, felt obliged to state that the Etas now possessed such a good organisation that it was no longer possible—as it had been a few years before—to treat them with contempt or indifference, and that the emancipation of these social pariahs presented Japanese internal policy with some most difficult problems.

During the second World War the Etas were able to improve their economic situation further, thanks to a solidarity among themselves which may be said to have been forced upon them. The fact that, contrary to the expectations of foreign observers, they created no difficulties for the Japanese governments during the war, was due to the

special watch that was being kept on them by the *Kempeitai*, the Japanese military police. However, with the passing of the *Kempeitai*, supervision of the Etas ceased, and they have not neglected the opportunities presented by the process of democratisation which began with the Allied occupation. The Japanese parties no longer close their doors to the Etas, and it may be regarded as a sign of special trust that most Etas have joined the Social Democrats.

Together with their political situation, their social situation has also improved. For instance, Matsumoto, the Deputy Speaker of the Upper House, mentioned earlier, was some time ago able to refuse to appear "in humble audience" before the Emperor, because he considered that the obsequious bowing, the audible catching of the breath and the backing out of the Audience Chamber, were inconsistent with the spirit of the new Constitution. In the end, the Director of the Imperial Household, Mr. Susuno Kato, gave in, conceding that the Emperor might shake hands "in a democratic manner" with one of his subjects. And the Imperial Palace did not become "unclean" because an Eta had entered it.

RAILWAY DEVELOPMENT IN THE NEW CHINA

by John Erickson

ONE of the most significant achievements of the new China so far has been the remarkable progress made with the restoration of railways. It is clear from even the most cursory study of a map of China that for many years to come internal transport will provide one of the most important and one of the most difficult problems with which the Peking Government will have to deal.

Present indications, which include the recent announcement of a five-year plan to resume services on all existing lines and build a number of new important links, are that railways construction will continue to be among the most spectacular measures of China's progress towards large-scale industrialisation. It is only a few months since China's remoteness and inaccessibility from the Western world seemed to be as great as in the days of the Manchus. This was the outcome of deliberate policy on the part of the Kuomintang. Wherever they have retreated, Chiang Kai-shek's armies have invariably devoted far more energy to wrecking railways, bridges and other installations than they have to fighting battles. This policy reached its climax in the wanton and insane destruction of the bridge over the Pearl River when the Nationalists fled from Canton. Even those most familiar with Chiang's desperate but hopeless scorched earth policy were quite unprepared for this final action in the south.

However, under the slogan "where the People's Army goes, the trains go" workers and technicians have worked wonders in restoring railways, building and repairing bridges and driving locomotives. The result is that today it is possible to travel entirely by rail from Hong Kong to the English Channel.

Chinese railway history began in 1876 with the opening of a 2ft. 6in. gauge line built by foreign enterprise between Shanghai and Woosung. However, on the last instalment of the redemption money being paid in October, 1877, the Chinese tore up the rails. Four years later the Tongshan-Hsukuchuang line was opened, and in 1888 was extended to Tientsin. This line now forms part of the Peking-Mukden railway.

After the Japanese war of 1894 concessions were given to companies of various nationalities for the construction of a number of railways, including one for the Chinese Eastern railway. From 1908 onwards all contracts gave administrative control to the Chinese Government and some of the older lines were later nationalised by mutual agreement. On the formation of the Republic in 1912 a start was made on the welding of existing lines into a national unit and the first annual report covering the whole system was issued in 1915.

It was not until after the Great War that there was any large-scale use of Chinese funds to construct new lines and in 1931 the total length of railways in the country had reached nearly 9,000 miles when the Manchuria Incident took place. During the next six years Japan seized nearly 4,000 miles of the north-eastern railways, but extensions to the Lunghai and Canton-Hankow lines meant that the Kuomintang had some 7,000 miles under its control just before the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese War in 1937. Prior to the Japanese surrender in 1945, the Kuomintang was in possession of less than 1,000 miles of railway.

After the surrender Chiang's Government took over 17,790 miles of railway, including lines in Manchuria,

Taiwan, and Hainan Island. The Kuomintang tentatively planned to construct 8,700 miles of new lines under a post-war five-year programme. This plan, however, was never put into effect.

The five-year plan of the Central People's Government, as outlined by the Minister of Railways, Teng Tai-yuan, provides for the restoration of all the existing railways of China and their electric installations and the building of another 6,250 miles in the north-west and in Szechuan Province. The first bridge—an iron structure—will be built over the Yangtse River at Hankow and the Yellow River bridge will be rebuilt. The Yangtse bridge will for the first time link the rail networks of North and South China, the only present connection being by rail ferry. Foundations for this bridge and for the replacement bridge over the Yellow River at Chengchow are due to be finished by the end of next year.

Other projects included in the five-year plan are extensions to two rail lines into the North-west to the Kansu Provincial capital, Lanchow. One line will run from the present railhead at Tienshui. The other, which is due to be finished next year, will reach from the terminus now at Paotow. A third new line is to enter Szechuan Province from Tienshui, serving Chengtu and Chungking. The result of the plan will thus be completion of the Tatung-Tanku line, a rail link between Peking and Lanchow and the extension of the Lunghai railway to Lanchow. Teng Tai-yuan has indicated that the final goal of railway construction in China is to provide a wide network of railways "criss-crossing an advanced industrial country."

For emergency repairs to existing lines every conceivable source of equipment has been tapped. During the years of guerrilla warfare against the Japanese, peasants used to lift and cart off into the mountains at night whole sections of railway. Special search parties have now been organised to find these tracks and return them for immediate use in the restoration of lines in the most recently liberated areas. Additional equipment has been obtained through the dismantling of entire railways in North China. A 200-mile line in North Manchuria built by the Japanese for military purposes and later wrecked is reported to have been temporarily restored so that its own rails and rolling stock could be transported for use further south. In this way the People's Government gained, in addition to rails and sleepers, 26 locomotives and a number of bridge spans.

At a railway conference in Peking last October, Teng Tai-yuan reported that up to that time the People's Government had inherited 2,292 blown-up railway bridges of which nearly 800 had then been repaired. Among these were such long spans as that over the Huai River north of Nanking and over the Sungari River in Manchuria.

Teng Tai-yuan also told the conference that the Soviet Union had provided enough rails and equipment to lay over 300 miles of track. He also paid a tribute to the considerable help given by Soviet advisers in the restoration of railways in the wake of the People's Army advance from Manchuria into China proper. Soviet maintenance methods have also now been generally adopted on the Chinese railways.

A long-overdue reform carried out by the railway department of the Revolutionary Military Committee before the establishment of the central government in Peking was



the introduction of uniform passenger and freight rates. Under the Kuomintang passengers travelling on different lines to reach their destinations had to buy new tickets and pay different rates on the various lines. Under the new system freight rates are fixed in accordance with the nature of the goods and their importance in relation to the rehabilitation of the country.

For Britain the vast railway development that the Chinese Government is planning can clearly be of the greatest importance. Enormous quantities of equipment of all kinds will be needed and there is nothing to suggest that China will depart from the normal procedure of securing this wherever she can. Reports persist that orders for steel rails for shipment to China have been reaching Ruhr steel firms for some months now. As time goes on West German leaders contemplating the increasing industrial output of Western Germany and the lack of markets in the dollar area, coupled with competition from other European exports, must be more and more tempted by the prospect of access to the limitless markets of the new China. Last summer Britain lost to Japan a useful contract to equip the railways of Siam; it would be ironic in the extreme if Germany were to make the British manufacturer reflect once again upon the apparent bitterness of the fruits of victory in the Second World War.

FROM ALL QUARTERS

Indian Interests in Burma

The Government of India propose to send in March a non-official delegation to Burma to discuss with the Burmese Government matters arising out of the Burma Land Nationalisation Act of 1948. The visit of a delegation last year had been postponed at the request of the Burmese Government who were then occupied with internal disturbances. It is estimated that the value of the properties of Indian nationals in Burma amounts to about Rs. 900 million and that the total number of Indians living there is between 600,000 and 700,000.

U.N.I.C.E.F. Helps Indonesia and Korea

The first air shipment to Indonesia of penicillin for an anti-yaws campaign of the United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund has now been despatched from the United States. The shipment consisted of 100 vials of penicillin, sufficient for 1,000 injections. Yaws, which affect children in a number of tropical areas, often continues into adult life, incapacitating large numbers of the adult rural population and consequently lowering food production. Medical experience has shown that most cases of yaws can be cured with a single injection of penicillin.

Plans for a child-welfare programme in Korea have also been announced by U.N.I.C.E.F. The Organisation has already allocated \$550,000 and the disposal of this will be based on a survey made last year by two experts who proposed the training of child and maternal health workers, education on nutrition through milk distribution demonstrations and various campaigns for better public health.

Refugees in Korea

Refugees coming from North Korea into the Republic of Korea totalled 36,260 during 1949. The Seoul Ministry of Social Affairs has had shelters for homeless refugees constructed at Ongchin, Kaesung, Uichungpoo, and other communities.

Burmese Cannon

An 18th century bronze Burmese cannon has been presented to the Colombo Museum by the Naval Authorities through the courtesy of Captain K. M. M. Bayliss, R.N. Two Burmese inscriptions upon the gun state that in 1725 A.C. Sanda Vizaya, the King of Arakan, used it in his attack on Chittagong, and that in 1784 A.C. it was taken from Arakan. How the cannon came to Ceylon is under investigation.

Tea Prospects in New Guinea

New Guinea may become a large tea-producing country and supply Australia with much of its tea. This is envisaged by Mr. E. J. Hallstrom, Sydney businessman and philanthropist, who has recently bought land in the highlands of New Guinea on which to start an experi-

mental tea plantation. Mr. Hallstrom said experts had told him the land was very suitable for tea production. If it succeeded, the plantation ultimately would be used as a training school for those inhabitants who wanted to start on their own. The land adjoins an experimental sheep station 250 miles from Lei, which Mr. Hallstrom started two years ago with sheep flown from Australia.

New Guinea Administration

The administration of Dutch New Guinea has now been outlined in a recent Decree. The future Governor, Mr. S. L. J. van Waardenburg, will have the assistance of a number of general administration departments, the heads of which will be formed into a Council. There will also be a New Guinea Council, acting as a co-legislative body, and a Judicial Council as the highest Court of Justice. The full Administration Decree follows the lines of the old Netherlands Indies Constitution and contains 181 articles plus a number of temporary provisions. The co-legislative New Guinea Council will have a membership of 21, distributed as follows: ten seats will go to indigenous, non-Dutch subjects of the Netherlands, all to be elected; nine seats will go to Dutch subjects, two of whom will be elected and seven nominated; and of the remaining two, one will go to a non-Dutch, non indigenous subject of the Netherlands by election, one by nomination. The Council will hold two sessions yearly.

Indonesian Influences on Arnhem Aborigines

The 60,000 square miles of Arnhem Land had long been regarded primarily as an area hostile to European settlers. After several murders of white men had occurred, settlers in nearby sections threatened to "make war" upon the aborigines of Arnhem Land. Rather than despatching police patrols into the territory, the Australian Federal authorities sent Dr. Donald F. Thomson, an Australian anthropologist, to study the natives, learn the real cause of the unrest and to restore peace. Dr. Thomson, on his one-man mission, respected ancient aborigine customs, won them over and persuaded them to keep the peace. He stayed among them, travelling and living as they did, for two and a half years, gathering a priceless collection of anthropological, zoological and geographical data. He charted the vast Arafura Swamp and made coastline explorations for the first time. Dr. Thomson's study of Indonesian influences proved that fishing fleets from the Macassar and Celebes Islands had made yearly visits to the Arnhem Land coastal aborigines for many generations, but the visitors came in peace and respected the customs of their hosts. There apparently was no intermarriage among them. The aboriginal dug-out canoe is traced to the Indonesians, as well as their smoking pipes, carved grave posts, many fabrics and ceremonial articles. The use of the anchor as a symbol of the departure of man from life is traced directly to the Macassar visitors.

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Australia and Ceylon Sign Air Agreement

The recent air transport agreement between Australia and Ceylon will provide for the establishment of a regular air service between the two countries. Ceylon will now have the right to maintain an air line from Colombo to Sydney via intermediate ports, while Australia will now be able to operate from Sydney through Ceylon to the United Kingdom thus giving Australia two alternative routes to London through the Indian sub-continent, one being through Calcutta and the other through Ceylon. The Australian air line will also be allowed to pick up or set down international passengers, cargo and mail at Ceylon, while similar rights have been granted to the Ceylon air line at Darwin and Sydney. The Australian service will be operated by Quantas Empire Airways and B.O.A.C. acting in partnership.

B.O.A.C. Plans

When he left for a short visit to Karachi, Singapore, Hong Kong, Australia and New Zealand, Sir Miles Thomas, chairman of B.O.A.C., said that his mission was to personally check that all possible economies are being made on B.O.A.C. Far Eastern routes, where land plane Argonauts have been substituted for the old, slower flying boats. In addition, he would discuss with associated and other Commonwealth airlines the strengthening of joint operations between Britain and Australasia, including the westabout route across the Pacific and Canada. With regard to the Far Eastern link with Australia, Sir Miles said that the fluid international situation in South East Asia made it increasingly important that there should be a strong and efficient air service between Great Britain and the Empire territories in the Eastern hemisphere.

REPORT FROM INDIA

I.L.O. Turns East

THE meeting of the Governing Body of the International Labour Organisation held in Mysore in the first week of January has honoured Asia in general and India in particular. The I.L.O., which had hitherto associated itself more with conditions in the West, has shifted the emphasis of its activities to the East, the recent meeting of its Governing Body being the first to be held in Asia in the Organisation's thirty years of history.

Several other facts reflect this important change: the decision of the Governing Body—on a proposal by Sir Guildhaume Myrrdin-Evans of the U.K.—to ask Mr. S. Lall, Secretary of the Indian Ministry of Labour, to continue to preside till the end of the session; the establishment of a field office of the I.L.O. at Bangalore; and the holding of an Asian Regional Conference of the Organisation in Ceylon almost immediately after the conclusion of the Governing Body's meetings. The Mysore session of the Governing Body was thus an epoch-making event in the history of the Organisation. The agenda before the conference comprised no fewer than 36 items, the most important being those dealing with freedom of association and unemployment.

After considerable discussion, the Governing Body adopted the terms of reference, procedure and composition of an International Fact Finding and Conciliation Commission on Freedom of Association. The establishment of the Commission has been under consideration for nearly three years.

Reports of various industrial committees which came up before the conference covered a wide field, including problems of important industries such as iron and steel, metal trades, coal, textiles, building and public works, inland transport, petroleum and chemical industries. The Governing Body also adopted reports submitted by the Experts Committee on Social Security, the Manpower Committee, the Technical Assistance Committee, the Permanent Agricultural Committee, as also reports of the Advisory Committee on Recreation, Juvenile Employment, and International Organisation.

On the advice of its Technical Assistance Committee,

the Governing Body decided to inform the United Nations that I.L.O. would participate in the programme of technical assistance for the economic development of underdeveloped countries under the conditions for this programme which were approved by the U.N. General Assembly at its last session. This decision of the Governing Body was of particular significance to India in view of what India's Labour Minister, Mr. Jagjivan Ram, had said in his address at the opening session of the Governing Body. "We have read with great interest," he remarked, "schemes and proposals formulated by the U.N. and its specialised agencies for economic assistance to underdeveloped countries. These schemes must not remain on paper; they must be acted upon and given effect to. Asia is watching and waiting."

Consideration of an issue of the greatest importance to Eastern countries—the setting up of an Asian Advisory Committee—was postponed till the next session of the Governing Body in March. The Committee, when created, will ensure that the activities of the Organisation in Asia are fully developed.

The meetings of the Governing Body of the I.L.O. concluded with the unanimous election of Senator Troclet, Government representative from Belgium, as Chairman. Sir J. F. Watson, Director of the British Employers' Confederation, and the French Trade Union leader, M. Jouhaux, were unanimously re-elected Vice-Chairmen.

Delhi Conference of Social Workers

The creation of Public Welfare Ministries both in the Central Government and in the Provinces was one of the outstanding recommendations of the Indian Conference of Social Workers which concluded its six-day session at New Delhi in the last week of December. The conference was attended by 300 experts in social work including a large number of observers from Britain, the U.S.A., Australia, Sweden, Norway, Switzerland and Czechoslovakia.

Meeting on the eve of India's new status as a sovereign Republic, the conference took note of the changing conditions through which the country was passing and emphasised the need for well-organised social services especially in view of the many plans for industrial development. It recommended that the Government should initiate

measures for the well-being of workers by constituting welfare trust funds for each industry. These should be financed partly from public revenues and the net profits of the industry concerned and partly from the unpaid bonus and wages of workers. The conference also underlined rather boldly an outstanding problem facing India when it urged the Government to expedite its plans for constructing one million houses for workers.

While stressing the need for better industrial welfare services, the conference did not altogether ignore the interests of those millions engaged in India's primary industry—agriculture. The proposed programme in this field included the regulation of tenant-landlord relations generally, with special emphasis on the payment of a living wage to agricultural workers.

Another important recommendation of the conference is intended to guide and assist the family in solving questions relating to budgeting, health and "emotional adjustment." Proposing the creation of a "Family Welfare Agency," the conference particularly mentioned the publication on a large scale of simple literature giving information on maternity and child welfare.

For co-ordinated planning and the shaping of social services on a national scale, the conference recommended the creation of Public Welfare Ministries which should generally be responsible for the entire field covered by the various social services. They should be backed by a separate budget allotment and should promote the scientific training of social workers by providing the necessary facilities to universities and other appropriate institutions.

Schools of Social Work

At present there are two institutions engaged in training social workers for the India of tomorrow—one at Delhi (Delhi School of Social Work) and the other at Bombay (the Tata Institute of Social Sciences).

The Bombay school, founded by an American missionary in 1936, is now run by the Sir Dorabji Tata Trust. It is organised on the lines of schools of social work of American universities. On passing out the students are granted a diploma. The school at Delhi, after the completion of a two-year course, grants the Master of Art degree in Social Work. It was founded in 1946 at Lucknow (United Provinces) but was later shifted to its present seat, where it is now affiliated to Delhi University and managed by the National Y.W.C.A. of India, Burma and Ceylon.

Both the institutions cover a similar curriculum: lecture courses, project reports in the field of specialisation, and field work (that is, actual experience gained at social service institutions including employment exchanges and adult education centres). Besides observational visits to various institutions, the schools arrange study tours to different parts of the country to enable the trainees—both boys and girls—to gain first-hand knowledge of social welfare problems and how they are being tackled. By their pioneering work in the country, the institutions are not only imparting skilled knowledge to those working for the welfare of groups and individuals, but are a boon to the cities in which they are situated, creating welfare services where they do not exist and organising them on scientific lines where they do.

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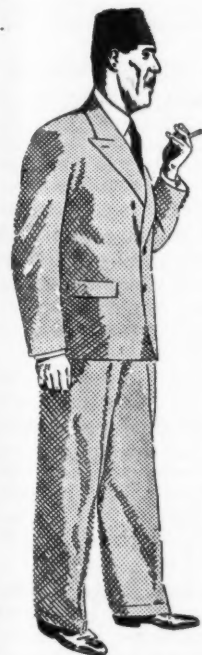
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BOOKS ON THE

The Life and Times of Po Chü-i by ARTHUR WALEY (*Allen and Unwin, 18s.*)

A new book by Arthur Waley is an occasion. When it concerns so closely the figure in Chinese literary and official history whose work has been his principal pre-occupation over many years, one may be sure it will prove of great value and interest.

So indeed it proves. Mr. Waley has taken as his starting-point the standard edition of the *Collected Works of Po Chü-i* and has supplied the deficiencies of this work by reference to the Old and New Histories of the T'ang Dynasty. His research has, indeed, gone even further afield, as a glance at his table of references at the end of the book will show. Yet with all this erudition the book itself makes no great demand on the reader; the general reader who does not wish to concern himself with sources and authorities can still profit from a story simply told and gripping from the first page.

It is much more than the life-story of a great poet and government official. The life of Po was so closely related to that of his great friend, Yüan Chên, that both stories have to be related in the telling of one. In addition to about a hundred poems hitherto untranslated (some by Yüan, but mostly by Po) there are translations from letters which passed between the friends, accounts of picnics and other all-too-rare meetings, as well as extracts from the official history of the times. Thus a complete picture is presented of a vital period in one of the outstanding dynasties of Chinese history.

The author is much more than a mere raconteur. He does not obtrude himself in telling another's story; yet at the same time he makes one or two enlightening comments in the course of the narrative and these are designed to show how like, in many ways, were the days in which Po lived to our own. In Po's days, as in our own, there was a growing tendency for the State to take over from the citizen much of the responsibility and initiative which had hitherto been in private hands. While most people who know the name of the poet at all consider him merely one of the leading poets of the glorious T'ang, Mr. Waley shows, in greater detail than in any of his former works, how much of Po's activity was of a political nature.

A pleasing touch is the presentation of the chief questions posed in Po's special examination and a discussion of the answers he gave. It is always comforting to know that the great ones of the earth have had the same grilling as lesser fry; it is often more than illuminating to see how they have come out of the ordeal. But Mr. Waley is wise enough not to attempt more than a couplet of the examination poem written by Po; for ourselves we should hate to have to translate it.

Perhaps the memory which will linger longest in the mind of the reader will be the infinite sadness called into being by Chinese friendships and partings. From the nature of official employment it was often a matter of years before firm friends could renew their thoughts in meeting;

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FAR EAST

vast distances had to be covered in a country of little transport facility and official duties usually tied one close to a specific locality. Some of the poems of longing and parting in this book will find an echo in the minds of twentieth-century readers who have, so recently, themselves suffered the bitterness of long being parted from home and friends. All will move the reader by their tragic inevitability; if the original is so poignant as to bring tears to hardened eyes, Mr. Waley's translations will give more than a hint to the non-Chinese reader of the weight of emotion which was the mainspring of their writing.

NEVILLE WHYMANT.

History of the Islamic Peoples by CARL BROCKELMANN,
translated by JOEL CARMICHAEL and MOSHE PERLMANN
(Routledge and Kegan Paul, 25s.)

The translators of Carl Brockelmann's famous work *Geschichte der Islamischen Völker und Staaten* have performed a really valuable service in making available to the English reading public the first one-volume history of the lands and peoples of Islam. A book surveying the 1,400 years of Islamic history was urgently needed and this book admirably covers the political and, to a smaller extent, the social aspects of this long story. To say that a Muslim scholar may perhaps have written a different book keeping the *milieu* and ideas of each age more to the front, is no condemnation of this work which is admirably complete in the limits it sets for itself. The emphasis had necessarily to be distributed and the author has devoted a large section of the book to the Osmanlis and in particular the rôle they played in the East European World. The account of the Islamic world in the nineteenth century is gratifyingly complete. There are, however, a few omissions which have been accentuated still more by the political events of the present decades, e.g., the History of Islam in India and Indonesia has received practically no notice. Thus one finds that the book (written in 1939) does not prepare us for the two major events in the political history of present day Islam—the emergence of the states of Pakistan and Indonesia.

The book is generally trustworthy though in some places the author has expressed a biased notion or betrayed an ignorance which is not very becoming to an author of his stature. To cite an instance of the latter, the author states that Abdullah, father of Prophet Muhammad, died two months after his birth while it is a well-known fact that the Prophet was born posthumously. A glance at the long bibliography reveals shortcomings in the preparation of the book. The list does not contain any mention of the original sources of history of the Islamic people.

However, it is pleasing to note that the author does at times take a line independent of the general European attitude. For example, the injunction of veiling for women in Islam has often been condemned wholesale as means of keeping them in servility. But Carl Brockelmann says:

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International Affairs

SOCIAL FORCES IN SOUTH-EAST ASIA

by CORA DU BOIS

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(for Minnesota University Press)

Dr. Du Bois is a distinguished American anthropologist who has been engaged, since 1942, in Intelligence work for the United States government, and is present Chief of the Southern Areas Branch in the State Department's Intelligence Research Office.

CORAL SEA, MIDWAY, AND SUBMARINE ACTIONS

by S. E. MORISON

Illustrated 42s. net

(Vol. IV of the History of United States Naval Operations in World War II.)

OXFORD UNIVERSITY PRESS

"The veil did not prevent women, before Islam as well as up to the time of the Umayyads, from moving around in public with a good deal of freedom and sometimes exercising quite considerable influence. It was only the institution of the harem, introduced by the Abbasids on the Christian-Byzantine pattern, that finally degraded the women of Orient" (p.27).

Thus he traces the evils of veil to the Christians' door and does not find anything seriously wrong in the original institution.

M. A. BAJWA.

Zen Buddhism by CHRISTMAS HUMPHREYS (*Heinemann*, 10s. 6d.)

Zen was born in China about the 8th century A.D. of the marriage between the philosophies of the Yoga school of Mahayana Buddhism and of later Taoism. The result of that marriage was not a philosophy or religion in the ordinary sense but an attitude to living—and to dying—which was a major influence in inspiring the painting and poetry and way of living of China's greatest era, the T'ang period (618-907).

From the 13th century, its later and greater development in Japan influenced every sphere of Japanese living: from its greatest painting and poetry and the famous Noh drama to the social and applied arts of everyday life, i.e., the Tea Ceremony, architecture, landscape gardening, and even to the military arts of Kendo or swordsmanship and to Judo wrestling. Sir George Sansom, a great authority on Japan, considers that "the quintessence of Japanese thought is to be found in Zen Buddhism."

The element of Yoga in Zen was given a peculiar and unique twist—a touch of genius, I think—by which the passive and somewhat negative contemplation of Indian Yoga was transmuted into an active and richly positive way of living which combined naturally and effortlessly and without conflict the contemplative aspects of living with its active and aesthetic aspects. The universal conflict between a life of contemplation and meditation and one of worldly activity was transcended in Zen. Each was made to enhance the other rather than to cancel it, as so often is the case. Many think—as I do—that Zen (once we understand it and that has difficulties of its own) is the one great contribution that the West, if it is wise, still may accept from the East. Something far greater and far more dynamic than the much over-rated relaxation techniques of Indian Yoga which are not as useful as some of the psychophysical techniques devised in the West by J. H. Schultz, Tirala, Matthias Alexander, Jacobson and others.

Mr. Christmas Humphreys, as President of the Buddhist Society for a quarter of a century, has had unique access to the personalities and thinkers and literature of Buddhism. He has had the rare opportunity of spending many post-war months in Japan where he studied with Professor Suzuki, the greatest authority on Zen. An unusual combination of force of character, insight and humour (the book will indicate how necessary that is) makes of him a brilliant and wise guide to one of the few worth-while experiences that are really new to the Westerner who is avid for spiritual adventure. The value of this book has been enhanced by the artistry, typically Zen, of Hasuko (Mrs. Christmas Humphreys).

DR. H. HARRIS.

The Sarawak Museum Journal Vol. V. No. 1 (New Series) (*Issued by the Museum, Kuching, Sarawak.*)

There is something for all tastes in this issue. Among the twenty-seven different articles in this welcome reappearance of a Journal which last saw the light in 1937, are valuable contributions on linguistics and archaeology, the art of Borneo and the islands, pottery and its decoration, stamps during and after the occupation and several papers on birds and reptiles.

One must, of course, make all allowance for the enthusiasm to be expected of one who has had special interest in the study of the South Seas, the languages and dialects spoken there, the fauna and flora of these widely separated localities; and the tribal arts and crafts. But even when such allowance has been made, it still remains true that the general student will find such information as is contained in these occasional publications of the highest value for comparative study. The ethnologist will add greatly to his data for comparison with his material from other parts of the world; the art student will find parallels with the designs from other centres of folk-activity.

It is to be hoped that henceforward this and many another Journal will be able to continue unhindered the publication of papers of such high importance. It is particularly gratifying to know that the Editor of the Journal (Mr. Tom Harrison, D.S.O., who is the Curator of the Sarawak Museum and Government Ethnologist) has ready a number of long papers embodying the results of his researches during the period 1945-1948. May it not be long before we see them in print!

NEVILLE WHYMANT.

Zero B.C. or Christ Upanishad by T. K. N. TRIVIKRAM (*World Culture Publications, Bombay, Rs. 7.15.*)

In this play Christianity is put into the mouth of an ancient Indian *rishi*, an initiate into the mysteries of religion. The Maharshi or great *rishi* explains and interprets some of the Biblical texts to Usha, the awakening reason and intelligence of man. He takes the Bible story and attempts to rationalise it. The miracles conceal profound truths about God, man, beast and universe. What to the uninitiate seem to be travesties of truth, reveal to the initiate the path to all knowledge and all attainment. The Bible shows the way to salvation, to the realisation of God within us. But it is revealed only to a chosen few.

Mr. Trivikram attempts to interpret the Bible from a new angle. He takes the Bible as a book of symbols, and tries to show the similarities of symbolism in the sacred books of all religions. The blank verse flows smoothly in deep-cut channels. It rarely stumbles over a ragged rock or tumbles into a rough ravine. Its quiet constant murmur is soothing, peaceful and inductive to contemplation.

Zero B.C. can be called a play only by courtesy. There are only two *dramatis personae*. There is a chorus, but it is insignificant and ineffective. Perhaps Mr. Trivikram has taken the classical Greek play as his model. But this play cannot stand stage presentation as it is really a discourse in dialogue form and there is very little scope for action. The incidents as narrated in the Bible are to be enacted in pantomime at the rear part of the stage. But they are few and far between, and not such as would help the action of the play.

BINDU D. KUMANA.

Men in the Tropics by HAROLD EVANS (*William Hodge, 18s.*)

This is an excellent book, to read, to dip into now and then, to keep by one to revive memories of other days or even, let it be whispered, to learn from; few can know so much about our Colonial territories that they will find nothing new here.

The book is in five parts, each dealing fairly fully with some section of the earth's surface where men of British stock began the building of an Empire. First we have West Africa (The Gambia, Gold Coast, Nigeria and Sierra Leone). This Colonial Anthology is made up of quotations from the writings of seemingly innumerable writers of a variety of styles but sharing one purpose. Eighteenth and nineteenth century writers with a leisured style so markedly in contrast with the staccato journalese of our own times do, as it were, lead us gently by the hand along the shores of some river or a shimmering sea in the dawn of the age of adventure.

Then come the islands of the Caribbean, those lands of glowing flowers and mystic rites, the lands of sugar cane and passion-flower. How the beauty and mystery of these lands impressed those who first trod them is abundantly clear from these vivid pages. Not always do we find the emphasis on such intangible things as scents and sounds, however, there is much deep understanding of the economic and political implications of the white man's presence.

The third section deals with East Africa—Kenya, Tanganyika, Uganda and Zanzibar. The epic of man's struggle with unregenerate Nature is found here; so also is the outline of the faith which wrought the British Empire, not as some say, as an out and out exploitation of "the native," but as part of a dimly felt and more or less clearly seen mission. This was to be no one-way traffic; for many of those who laid the foundations it was as surely a mission as any which belonged to the cure of souls.

In Part Four one can gain a fairly clear idea of the growth of the Malay Archipelago; that monument to Raffles and Swettenham, aided and abetted by many another. One cannot go anywhere in Singapore, even today, without stubbing one's toe on a Raffles Square, a Raffles Hall, or something of the sort. Then there is Port Swettenham itself, a place, the griffin is told, "where the mosquitoes are as big as young monkeys; they lever themselves through your porthole while you sleep!"

The book ends with a discussion of the Pacific Islands. Fiji, Tonga, the Gilbert and Ellice Islands and the Solomons; how much more satisfying is this first-hand account than all the Blue Lagoons and glamorous sarong-wearers of the screen!

Before each section is an historical summary. There are good illustrations and a list of acknowledgements. A book for the armchair traveller and also for the man who would know what the concept of Empire meant to some who were not interested in making political capital out of the argument.

NEVILLE WHYMANT.

Why Not English? by PETER D. RIDGE-BEEDLE (*The Stratford Press, Glasgow, 10s. 6d.*)

The difficulty experienced in learning to read, write and spell (particularly spell) English, is one of those hardy perennials which can always be depended upon to produce

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some new system which guarantees to cut labour involved by a large percentage. On pages 29-37 of this book, the author goes fully into the question of the financial saving which would be effected if the "Bedel" alphabet were adopted; we do not feel that Mr. Ridge-Beedle is on equally sure ground when he claims that the new system would enable foreigners to gain a deeper appreciation of English literature. That there would be some noteworthy saving of time and physical effort in the production of written matter is demonstrably true, but literature is usually a matter of leisure (or should be so) and we cannot convince ourselves that those who will not put forth the effort to master English as it is will profit greatly from English literature, however presented to them.

The author's system is ingenious. He drops from their place in our alphabet those letters which are superfluous and gives them other functions. He then introduces some arbitrary signs and sounds which at present have several different spellings. A large part of the book is taken up with examples of old and new versions conveniently presented on facing pages.

A Bird Photographer in India by E. H. N. LOWTHER
(Oxford University Press, 21s.)

India has been generously supplied with bird literature due almost entirely to British influence there. The present volume of seventy-eight photographic plates deals with hornbills, eagles, owls, vultures, the crested swift upon its tiny nest and other uncommon camera subjects. It is only the second book on Indian birds illustrated throughout with photographs of wild birds. The other was Colonel Bates' *Birdlife in India*. Born in India, and for 34 years a railway official there, Mr. Lowther has pursued his hobby of ornithology since schooldays and if his photographs sometimes lack the high standard of modern English bird-photography, allowances must be made for the great heat under which they were mostly taken.

This is essentially a book for the naturalist, but every sportsman who has travelled or served in India will find something interesting in it. The author has photographed the Pallas' fishing eagle at its nest ten miles from the Taj Mahal and has seen it bring portions of human bodies to the nest for food. He writes of the scavenger vultures which every year rear their young on Allahabad Cathedral, and he comes to the defence of the king vulture's royal

status with incidents that belie the critics who say other vultures do not give way to this bird at the carrion feast. Amongst some of the best photographs are the whiskered tern at its nest, the common grebe showing the ivory-coloured marking which appears at the base of the beak in the breeding season, and the ringed plover with its large eye. There are several interesting observations recorded, like the suggestion that the great stone-curlew may destroy other birds' eggs. I notice Mr. Lowther uses the spelling "mina" in place of the usual "myna," but as this bird-name comes from the Hindustani *maina* he is probably correct.

ERIC HARDY.

I Cover Europe by J. M. DEB (*Hind Kitabs, Bombay, Rs. 3.12.*)

In describing his book as having "a somewhat pretentious title," Mr. Deb has anticipated a most obvious criticism. Even if Britain, Eire, France and Switzerland did constitute "Europe," the rather fleeting glance that the author had of the latter three in particular hardly justifies the term "cover" except in its most narrow journalistic sense. If in addition the book fails to present any sort of coherent picture of either the Europe that Mr. Deb visited as a newspaperman or its impact on him as an Indian nationalist, it is because he is capable of being remarkably inconsistent. Thus in the first chapter he attacks the British press on a point on which it is more than vulnerable: "... from a glance at the British dailies an Indian reader might well wonder if a country called 'India' existed in the world at all." Later on, however, he quotes a "popular" newspaper's treatment of a "human interest" story to explain why "the British press today unflinchingly carries the latest stories, and why it hardly misses any important event."

Nothing, however, could be more remarkable than the comparison the author draws between the Irish people and the Indians. He refers to the strong anti-British sentiment common to both peoples deriving from their long struggles for independence. At no point, though, does he dwell on the most tragic parallel between India and Ireland—the poverty of the masses of the people in both countries. Is it not ultimately to put an end to such conditions that people fight for independence?

JOHN ERICKSON.

THE INDIAN VICEROYS

by H. G. Rawlinson

BRITISH rule in India lasted just two hundred years, and during that period thirty-three distinguished men held the position of Viceroy and Governor General, by general consent the highest and most responsible post in the Empire. The result of their labours, as Lord Curzon said, is graven on the rock, for all to see.

"In everything which affects the maintenance of peace, the security of life and property, the administration of humane laws, the fixing and equalization of taxation, religious and political freedom, education, the extension of cultivation, the development of the country by roads, rail-

ways and canals, the promotion of commerce—everything, in fact, that contributes to the security, comfort and convenience of life—the British Government has conferred blessings on the people of India such as never entered into the minds of Hindu Kings or Mohammedan Emperors in the most palmy days of their power."

As Lord Mersey points out, under the Moguls, the greatest of their predecessors, the progress of the subjects had been far less, though the taxation it had imposed was heavier. For a parallel we have to turn to the Roman Empire in the days of Augustus and Trojan. There were three turning

points in the history of British India. The first was when Lord North's Regulating Act of 1774 enacted that a Governor General of Bengal, with a small Council, was to administer the British possessions in the country; the second was the transfer from the Company to the Crown in 1858; and the third was the introduction of responsible government in 1909. But to the end, the Viceroy, in his dual capacity of Head of the State and Prime Minister, was the most powerful, the hardest-worked, and the most responsible ruler in the world. The climax was reached under Lord Curzon, the greatest, perhaps, of them all. The first World War showed that Britain was not invulnerable, and the great bureaucratic machine began to creak. A second and even more exhausting World War followed, and Indians would have been more than human had they not benefitted by the opportunity it presented.

It is not easy to compress into the compass of half-a-dozen pages the work of the governor of over a quarter of a million people during a period of five crowded and eventful years, and Viscount Mersey's succinct biographies inevitably suffer from compression. They pass lightly over the eccentricities of Ellenborough or Lytton, the unpopularity of Bentinck, Canning or Ripon, with the European community, or the disastrous Mesopotamian campaign in the time of Hardinge. Many readers would like further details of the Simon Commission, Lord Irwin's negotiations with Gandhi, and the real reasons for the failure of the Cripps Mission. On the other hand some of the portraits are admirably drawn, especially when the writer is speaking from personal experience. Of Willingdon, he tells us:

"He was immensely popular with the Rajahs, for his gallant bearing and open, friendly manner won the hearts of all. As Sir James Grigg says, 'To any visitor he invariably conveyed the impression that his visitor was the one person on earth he most wanted to see.' In 1935 he had some short leave in England, largely occupied with departmental work and formal entertainments. He said

to the present writer, 'My holiday will only begin when I step on board ship on my return journey.' His activity and devotion to duty remained undiminished; in 1938 he led an important good-will mission, and in 1941 a trade delegation to South America. Besides having been for twenty consecutive years Governor or Governor General in East or West, he had thus travelled in the service of the State from China to Peru. His good health, good will and good nature gave him a happy life which he always enjoyed, working to the end. Full of honours, beloved by all who knew him, an honest and able patriot, he died in London on the 12th August, 1941, at the age of seventy-four."

And here is what he says of Lord Wavell:

"Lord Wavell admits to a liking for unorthodox soldiers and a leaning to the unorthodox in war, though he ascribes to himself a lack of enterprise in straying from the regular path of soldiering. His varied campaigns in three continents have probably given him more military experience than any commander now living. Like his predecessors, Lord Halifax and Linlithgow, he is a listener rather than a talker. One of his favourite remarks is supposed to be 'I see'."

Though this work adds little to our previous knowledge, the reader will find in it a sane and well-balanced account of a remarkable succession of men. None of them failed in integrity and few in ability. According to the standards of their time they can compare advantageously with the great proconsuls of the Roman, Russian or Chinese Empires, and it is worthy of remark that of thirty-two British Governor Generals, appointed arbitrarily to rule an alien and predominantly illiterate population from the other side of the world, only one has been assassinated; while in exactly the same space of time and from exactly the same number of Presidents of America, freely elected by their own compatriots, three have fallen by that fate. The book has a short but adequate introduction, a list of Viceroys and Governors General and of leading events of their time, and an exhaustive index. The illustrations are admirably reproduced and form an complete picture gallery.

THE SINGAPORE CONSPIRACY

by Barbara Whittingham-Jones

Political Questions of Malaya by G. L. PEET (*Cambridge University Press*, 1s. 6d.)

Dilemma in Malaya by T. H. SILCOCK (*Fabian Publications and Victor Gollancz*, 1s. 3d.)

Autres temps, autres mœurs. Now that Asian nationalists have slain the dragon (if it really was a dragon) of "divide and rule," pale pink colonialists in Malaya are trying out a new variant, "unite and rule." Mr. Peet and Professor Silcock are both mainly preoccupied with the problem of creating a "Malayan" "nation" from three disparate elements which must compromise but will never fuse; and persistently though they "prowl and prowl around," Delphi still withholds her secret. Mr. Peet's cool

and dispassionate analysis of the past and present set-up in Malaya is the most useful publication of its size that I have seen, though it attempts no phoney panacea and provides no ammunition for anyone. Professor Silcock's pamphlet, on the contrary, is a highly emotional defence of the Labour Government's post-war policy of trying to manufacture a "Malayan" nation; and, while the main theme is frequently lost sight of in detailed digressions on such controversial issues as the advocacy of English-language teaching or a criticism of the dual role assigned to the Trade Union Adviser in being required to advise both the Unions and the Government, this is no loss to the reader as these digressions are the most valuable part of the contents, springing as they do from the author's own work.

From both pamphlets, however, one derives an overwhelming impression of the inherent unreality of this "Malayan" hybrid which the Colonial Office is striving so hard to bring to birth. Professor Silcock delivers an all-out attack on pre-war British policy and post-war Malay nationalist aspirations to recognise Malaya as a Malay country, but in the process he is repeatedly caught in his own toils. None will question his insistence that "in Malaya the racial problem is incomparably the most important" (p.40). Yet in the discussion of this problem he lashes out with the wildest assertions. "It is hysterical nonsense," he assures us (p.11), "to claim that the Malays ever owned Malaya in the same sense as a modern European state owns the territory it administers." Before 1874 the industry and commerce of Malaya was concentrated round its rivers along which the Malays were settled and from which bases they controlled alike the produce of the country and its external relations. On the same analogy, would Professor Silcock suggest that, because the interior of Australia is not so densely populated as a modern European state, it does not "belong" to the Australians? On the Malay-Chinese issue itself, the following incontrovertible assertions from his own pen should be considered in relation to his main theme: "Generally it is the best-educated Chinese who are most thoroughly assimilated to Malaya," and "it is these who aspire to administrative positions and political leadership. To them any suggestion, by Malays or Europeans, that Chinese cannot belong to Malaya, seems largely insincere. They feel both that they belong and that they are largely supported by Chinese opinion (? of immigrant Chinese or of Chinese in China) *with which they have much in common.*" (p.10. My italics.) Yet in the very next breath he proceeds: "Many of these remain very conscious of belonging to China, and according to Chinese law all people of Chinese race remain Chinese nationals wherever they go or wherever they may be born." Farther on he tells us: "Many of the Chinese have far less in common with the Malays than with immigrant Chinese who are in no sense settled in Malaya" (p.16). But isn't that exactly what the Malays maintain? Among the reforms Professor Silcock advocates is the encouragement of political-mindedness and political activity among all races in Malaya. Splendid. But is there no significance in his striking admission concerning the Malayan Union controversy in 1946 that "Malay opposition to the new Constitution steadily grew" and "was not matched by any support for it from those who stood to benefit"; whereas "The Malayan Chinese showed almost unbelievable apathy and political ineptitude" (p.7).

Professor Silcock is hampered by his brief which is to rebut the Communist allegation that Britain is "grinding down a 'Malayan National Movement' which does not yet, in effect, exist." (Preface.) But what the Colonial Office—and the British public—have to face, is that such a movement never will come into existence. If indeed Malaya is ever to become a nation, it will only do so as a *preponderantly* Malay or Chinese state. (The Indians, the smallest community of the three, do not affect the issue for, in the first place, as our author points out (p.6), since 1938 the flow of Indians to and from Malaya has largely ceased, and secondly, they now take their lead from Pandit Nehru). That does not exclude co-operation between the ruling race—the Malays—and domiciled minorities. Such co-opera-



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tion is indeed fast developing on the English-speaking leadership level and should be promoted by the British officials by every possible means—including most of these urged by Professor Silcock.

Both writers stress the report of the 1947 census showing 44 per cent Malays and 39 per cent Chinese in the Federation (exclusive of Singapore which is preponderantly Chinese), and the Chinese birth-rate to be higher than the Malay. But Mr. Peet put his finger on the nerve-centre of Malayan politics in a single phrase. "It seems only a matter of time," he says, "before the Malays are outnumbered by the Chinese in the Malay Peninsula . . . unless there is large-scale immigration from Indonesia to correct the balance." Therein lies the inevitable—and equitable—solution. Professor Silcock is out of his depth in pure politics or he would not perpetrate such a syllogism as this: "It is illogical for Malays to aspire to membership in a greater Indonesia and dispute the right of the Chinese to attempt to make Malaya a nineteenth province of China"; or that "other races have a right to insist that immigrants of Malay race have no greater claim to belong to Malaya than immigrants of any other race, *except in so far as they can show that they are in fact absorbed more easily.*" (p.12. My italics.) If a common race, language, customs and culture are not the fundamental ingredients of nationhood, what are? It is wanton irresponsible hypocrisy to bolster up so artificial an amalgam which, after a British withdrawal, though propped up by the respective leaders unwilling to lose jobs both important and remunerative, would be overthrown by the masses behind directly the controls were off.

The solution slowly gaining ground in British councils is partition, which Mr. Peet foreshadows as "reorganisation." This, as he states it, would mean making the Federation purely a Union of the nine Malay States, and reconstitute the old Colony of the Straits Settlements, linking Singapore and Penang together again, if not Malacca as well. Such a measure would command the support of both Penang Chinese who are pressing for secession of Penang from the Federation, and also of extreme Malay Nationalists. The creation of two self-governing Dominions, having equal status with Ceylon, one predominantly Malay, the other predominantly Chinese, would secure the continuation of British power at Singapore for which there is substantial support among the communities. Moderate Malay opinion on the other hand, which originally insisted on the exclusion of Singapore from the Federation in order to disembarass it of an undigestable mass of Chinese, now regrets this step, seeing in a Singapore over which they have no control an unbolted backdoor through which Chinese immigration may continue unrestricted, and oppose the creation of a "Chinese" dominion as an aggravation of this danger.

Another alternative is a deliberate movement of Indonesian immigration to supply Malays with the blood stock they require to establish a decisive numerical superiority in the "Melayu Serikat" or United Malaya to which Singapore would be reincorporated. Malays who advocate this policy, and the emancipation of Indonesia

will inevitably swell their ranks, envisage Malaya as a single independent Dominion, within the Commonwealth of Britain will satisfy their aspirations, or in some association with the Indonesian Republic, if she refuses. To this end they are pressing for an early general election on a non-communal basis to a constituent assembly as the surest safeguard against Chinese Communism. Such a self-governing Malay Dominion, with its central legislature and Malay Prime Minister, would in time undoubtedly absorb the Malay State of Patani, now a province of South Siam whose legitimate National movement has been cynically sacrificed by the British Foreign Office on the alleged altar of Communism.

Malays assert that, in South-East Asia today, the only alternative to Chinese Communism is pan-malaysian nationalism. Already the Indonesian Republic are planning the transfer of large numbers of Javanese to Sumatra, and it is certain that sooner or later, Malaya also will be flooded with Indonesian immigrants, legal or illegal. Surely it accords with the traditional trends of Britain's political thought to accept so inevitable a connection of the arbitrary partition imposed on Malasia by the artificial European frontier created by the Anglo-Dutch Treaty of 1824? Between Britain and Indonesia relations are cordial, and there should be no difficulty in reaching an understanding with President Sukarno similar to that already established with Premier Nehru, that immigrants to Malaya must accept the nationality of their new homeland.

OAR AND SAIL IN SOUTH-EAST ASIA

by David Parry

FEW things in the Eastern scene are more memorable than the strange craft that anchor in the harbours and ply the rivers and seas, and these vessels, quite apart from their specialised interest, are of considerable value in any study of Asiatic culture, the method of construction employed, though no doubt little changed for hundreds of years, showing in the curve or fastening of a plank, or in some other seemingly trivial way, the influence of early races of merchants and conquerors, while a glance at the hull and sail-plan, besides throwing light on the skill of the builder and the kind of materials at his disposal, may tell much about the configuration of the coastline, the mode of life of the inhabitants, and the strength and bearing of the prevailing wind. Naturally, the number of designs that can be said to have made history (such as the dhow, for instance, and the Nile boats of ancient Egypt) is comparatively small, but it is nevertheless true that the simplest dug-out afloat in the East records history in some measure, and S.E. Asia, even if we exclude the colourful dinghies and rice-carriers of the Hooghli and the Bay of Bengal, is immensely rich in different types of shipping, so that countless examples of the work of her naval architects, Malays, Chinese, Burmese and Javanese among them, are to be seen at all times in the great ports of Singapore and Rangoon.

Perhaps nowhere in the world is the effect of local conditions on boat-building so pronounced as on the west coast of the Malay Peninsula, for here bars of mud or sand have to be negotiated at the entrance to almost every estuary, and these shifting underwater obstructions would seriously hinder the passage of ordinary craft to and from the anchorages within. Further, the strong tides and frequent calms to be met

with in the Malacca Straits must be taken into consideration, and shipwrights have been forced to concentrate on propulsion by oar and paddle rather than by sail, the main features of their slender canoes being small displacement, shallow draught and beam, and hollow lines. Needless to say, these are by no means the characteristics of a good all-weather vessel, and one would be justified in expecting to see radical changes along the less sheltered eastern seaboard of the Peninsula, where gales and heavy swell are not uncommon. Excepting an occasional band of seine fishermen or cockle-pickers, however, the fact is that the beaches in this region are practically deserted when the monsoon is at its height, for the people combat the rough seas by the simple expedient of refusing to put out until the storms have abated, while long canoes of a similar pattern to those already mentioned serve them adequately on the short voyages normally undertaken during the rest of the year.

Broadly speaking, therefore, it may be concluded that the achievements of designers living on the west coast of Malaya do not differ very widely from the results obtained by those on the east, but it goes without saying that there are endless variations on the few general principles it has been possible to mention, and increased use of sail, for instance, is certainly to be noted along the shores of the South China Sea. In this connection, gaily coloured canvas is nowadays often chosen in preference to the traditional matting, but it is worth recording that the typical forms are still the ancient rectangular and square sheets so prominent in the sculptures decorating the great Javanese temple of Borobudur, which dates from c. A.D. 750-850. Equally intriguing are the means by which

the Malay, having hollowed out a selected log with the adze, opens the dug-out by soaking the wood and then subjecting it to heat, and in this operation he follows age-old directives on such points as the correct temperature of the fire that is lighted beneath the crudely fashioned hull. Next, the sides will probably be raised by the addition of suitable lengths of timber, and these wash-boards, when pegged or lashed into position, help to keep crew and payload reasonably dry. Although the heaviest work is now over, the ends have to be shaped, and much time, too, will be spent in installing the fittings and erecting the mast; moreover, the entire canoe will be planed and tidied, the portion below the water-line will be carefully polished to cut down resistance, and the owner, especially if he intends to ply for hire, will begin the important task of painting his craft in order to be sure of attracting his quota of customers when he calls at the nearby jetty or pier.

Leaving the Peninsula for a moment and turning our attention northward, it is difficult to believe that the graceful vessels navigating in the Gulf of Siam are produced by the Malays' closest neighbours, the contrast in appearance being striking indeed. One of these Siamese craft may exceed fifty or sixty feet from its high bows to its pointed stern, and that the performance of the boats is no less impressive is demonstrated by the distances they cover in a day's trick, and by the manner in which they ride out the fiercest squall. Beautifully balanced and rounded, their deep hulls owe their strength partly to the excellence of the timber supplied to the shipyards, partly to the skill of the carpenters who carry out the work, and extreme buoyancy and handiness are the qualities that spring most readily to mind. Rigged on two masts, one right forward, the second amidships, the yellow matting lugs are set to take advantage of every breath of wind, but the Siamese, Cambodian and Annamese crews also show themselves to be fine oarsmen when the situation demands it, and the large steering-paddles are particularly noteworthy on account of their resemblance to those on the models taken from the tombs of the Pharaohs, while others are remarkably like the rudders we have come to associate with the galleys and merchantmen of the Romans and the Greeks. In variety, too, the shipping of the Gulf is quite exceptional, and many aspects of its peoples' flair for sailing and building have yet to be described in anything approaching the detail they deserve.

In not even the briefest examination could one pass over China's contribution to the story of Eastern shipping, for the Chinese were probably the first of all the early nations to solve the problems of ocean travel, and at a very remote period they had begun to trade with the outside world. In addition, they have given S.E. Asia two main classes of vessel, the sampan and the junk, and a good example of the former is used extensively on the Singapore River, having the usual flat bottom, a deep rudder, and characteristic width of beam. The length of these sampans varies from fifteen to thirty feet, but the junks are, of course, far larger, and the sight of one of them at sea is not easily forgotten, the rather ornate hull moving forward ponderously, one might almost say relentlessly, under the great spread of canvas it is the habit to employ. Unfortunately, in the face of growing competition from the fast modern passenger and cargo services operating in the Gulf, the Straits, and the Java Sea, the number of junks has declined appreciably during the last fifty years, and that they have survived for so long in the highly mechanised business of present-day transportation, as well as being a wonderful tribute to their designers, illustrates the perfect understanding that the Chinese have of the principles of fore-and-aft sailing—an understanding which has enabled an obsolete craft to play a part in the economic life of the 20th century.

The proa is another vessel whose popularity has suffered a decline in the last few decades, but it, too, is still to be seen

around Borneo and Sumatra, and is immediately recognised by its Malay hull, curious sail-plan, and tall tripod mast. Whereas the jib and bowsprit seem to have been borrowed from European merchantmen, the projecting side-galleries are identical to the so-called *parados* of the Greek trieres, though it must be added that the Japanese junk also has platforms of much the same kind. Unlike the Chinese, however, Japanese sailors and merchants of earlier generations seldom penetrated far along the trade routes to Malaya and the Dutch East Indies, the reason being that, long before the period of isolation which began with the expulsion of the Spaniards and Portuguese in 1624 and 1638, they were handicapped by the slowness of these selfsame junks, practically the sole ocean-going craft they had managed to evolve. In fact, it will be apparent that the success of the Japanese in the sphere of naval architecture dates from very recent times, and until the latter half of the 19th century they had accomplished little or nothing of which an island people could justly be proud. The proa, on the contrary, has a surprising turn of speed, and when its rig is modernised, as it generally is nowadays, the manufacturer or grower is offered a cheap and ready means of transporting his goods.

Hitherto there has been little or no opportunity to deal with the traffic that is continually moving along the inland waterways of S.E. Asia, but in the case of Burma the subject assumes immense importance, because it is in this direction that the Burmese, in spite of a coastline that stretches nearly fifteen hundred miles from Akyab to the Mergui Archipelago, have devoted most of their talent to the construction of boats. More than half the rice delivered to the Rangoon mills comes by water, a major percentage of it loaded in sturdy cargo-carriers known as *tonkings*, and for further evidence of the value of the rivers in Burma's economy it is only necessary to glance at the map, because the inhabitants of a great exporting country of some 260,000 square miles could never hope to haul sufficient freight over the existing railways and metalled roads. In 1941, before all forms of communication were disorganised by the Japanese invasion, the Irrawaddy Flotilla Company alone had in commission about six hundred vessels, and these craft provided a link between the capital and such towns as Chauk, Pakokku, Mandalay and Bhamo. Of all the principal rivers, only the Salween, which rises fifty or sixty feet during the rains, is not considered suitable for shipping, and it, too, serves to carry downstream huge quantities of teak.

Undoubtedly the finest material the shipwright can obtain, the quality that makes teak such a vital commodity is its durability, the natural oils present in the wood effectively preserving it against fungal attack. At the launching station, or at some other pre-determined point along the banks of the river, rafts are built by lashing together as many as two hundred tree-trunks with lengths of cane, and even on these unwieldy structures the Burmese loggers succeed in making themselves tolerably comfortable, erecting bamboo huts or *bashas* in which to rest at the end of the day. This provision is typical of the attitude of all those in S.E. Asia whose livelihood depends on ships and the sea, for they have learnt to regard their craft as homes, not mere conveyances, and often decorate them with carvings that are in no way inferior to the reliefs and frescoes of the mainland temples and shrines. Their dress, customs and superstitions, too, are subjects of enduring interest, and an extraordinarily rich field of research is open to anyone who has the time and the patience to study the lives of these simple yet skilful mariners, folk whose story deserves better treatment than to be subordinated, as it has been in this short article, to the vessels they sail from port to port—vessels in whose very defects may be seen the stages by which man progressed, slowly and laboriously, towards the turbine steamer and the modern yacht.

LONDON NOTEBOOK

Archaeology in Pakistan

On the point of departure for Karachi, where he will resume his work as Archaeological Adviser to the Pakistan Government, Dr. R. E. Mortimer Wheeler referred to the importance of archaeology in the cultural equipment of a modern state. The achievement of a people in the past is in a real sense its passport to the future, and in the case of a relatively new state such as Pakistan it is doubly important to emphasise the long tradition of varied achievement which lies behind its recent history.

Accordingly the Pakistan Government is taking three main steps to make its cultural inheritance known, both to its own nationals and to the world at large. The first step is to bring into being a Pakistan National Museum at Karachi, and one of the first objects of Dr. Wheeler's forthcoming visit is to assist in the preparation of this museum for an early opening.

The second step is the preparation of handbooks and textbooks dealing

with Pakistan's history and archaeology. These are badly needed if the people—and particularly the young people—of Pakistan are to be presented with an adequate picture of their past.

Thirdly, every modern and civilised nation maintains a department of archaeology for the conservation, exploration and interpretation of its ancient sites and buildings. In this matter, as in others, Pakistan has had to start from very inadequate beginnings, but an extremely useful State Department of Archaeology has been brought together and is already at work. It is proposed to establish forthwith at the famous prehistoric site of Mohenjo-daro in Sind an archaeological training school, where, under Dr. Wheeler's direction, the recruits to this Department and other students from Pakistan, will be given a rigorous training in modern methods.

Music of Ceylon

The music of Ceylon has not, in the past, received as much attention from scholars as the various forms of Indian music. Therefore the lecture of Mr. Suryasena, to the Royal India and Pakistan Society was of particular interest. It was illustrated by gramophone records, snatches of

drum rhythms, a film on Kandyan Court Dancing, and by examples of folk music recorded on gramophone discs or sung by Mr. Suryasena. These he collected from the lips of the peasants themselves in his wanderings all over the island. As is the case with folk music everywhere the songs are chiefly occupational—songs sung while reaping, or pounding rice, or poling the flat bottomed boats along the shallow rivers. One folk tune imitated with a delightful slow rhythm the ponderous tread of the elephant. Except for the kings and the peasants, music in the island did not form part of the people's lives as in India. This was due to the influence of Buddhism which discouraged its monks and nuns from indulging in the arts of instrumental music, song or dance, considering these to rouse the senses. As the monasteries were an inspirational source of the visual arts and repositories of learning neither devotional nor popular music other than the folk music of the peasants, were developed. Music therefore became a courtly privilege or else was enjoyed undisturbed in the villages and forests and along the river banks, where Mr. Suryasena has found them intact today, though hitherto not noted down. An article on this subject will be published in a later issue of this paper.

INDONESIAN DANCING by Winifred Holmes

Raden Mas Utomo's dance recital in January was an event as London had not before seen the finest in Indonesian dancing, and the sponsors, this journal and the Royal India and Pakistan Society, were gratified by the public's response—a most enthusiastic response—to this new artistic experience. London is one of the most dance-conscious and dance-critical capitals in the world at present, but there was no doubt of the warmth of the enthusiasm shown for Indonesia's greatest dancer. The programme was very varied, with examples of Balinese, Sumatran and Javanese dancing, traditional and living, an amusing "character" dance and a modern creation of Utomo's which attempts to fuse the different strands of the island's music and dance into a single act of devotion, symbolising the

unity of the peoples of the Republic. To reach to its fullest height the dance must be an act of faith, expressing a deeply felt religious or philosophic idea or some universal truth in emotional, sensuous and abstract terms. The examples of Indonesian dancing presented to us by Raden Mas Utomo and his company did on the whole satisfy these requirements.

The first item—a cycle of the most famous Balinese dances strung together to form a slender thread of story—was most explicit to Western appreciation and showed Utomo's powers as a dancer to the highest advantage. It also showed his very wide range. He is a very virile dancer and his "Baris" fighting dance technique is as it should be, controlled and classical and yet full of a masculine

aggressiveness and pride. This virility makes his love dance "Kintamani" a thing of tenderness combined with power which is extremely moving. The balance of the relationship between man and woman is therefore kept with precision as it is not always kept in Western dancing. His range also includes exquisite burlesque so fine, pointed and subtle as to be almost indistinguishable to many in the audience who watched the "Dag Dance" without a smile.

With the slender means at his disposal and with a thin gamelan orchestra, Utomo did at times create magic, although the "Tara Piring" which is capable of producing the most trance-like spell of all did not achieve this, being less devotional and more of an exhibition of virtuosity than it should normally be.

ECONOMIC SECTION

The Story of Hong Kong's Trade

by R. M. McKinnon

BEHIND the political and military events in China that recently have caused world attention to focus on Hong Kong, there has been taking place what must be one of the most remarkable trade recoveries in history. In just over four years, the value of goods passing through the Colony's wharves has risen from nought to an estimated £290 million for 1949, and what was a derelict harbour used only by a few fishing junks, again numbers among the six busiest ports of the world. Speculation concerning Hong Kong's future has been rife, but it is a future as likely to be influenced by the volume of this trade as by the sweeping Communist drive into South China. One fact at least is proved by the latest trade returns issued by the Hong Kong Department of Commerce and Industry, namely, if the Peking Government intends to go ahead with its plans for the economic and industrial development of North China, then it will require the services of the port that British enterprise has built up into one of the world's greatest trading centres.

These returns show that, in spite of the Nationalist blockade, the volume of exports to Tientsin and North China is now greater than at any time under the Nationalists since 1945. In October last year, the Colony's total trade turnover with Middle and North China amounted to £5,557,841, of which exports accounted for £2,634,024, and imports for £2,923,817, the latter figures representing respective increases by value of 170 and 152 per cent over the same month in 1948. Altogether, the total trade value with what is now Communist China during the first ten months of 1949 was £30,206,185, an increase of 100 per cent over the same period in the previous year. Imports from Tientsin and the central ports consisted mainly of agricultural products and such things as bristles and vermicelli which are in great demand in Hong Kong; the main exports were chemicals, rubber products and industrial machinery. It is interesting also to note that British ships lead the fleet of blockade runners. During October last year, nine ships flying the Red Ensign arrived in North China ports and eleven were cleared.

Nor, in spite of the conspicuous military failures of the Kuomintang Forces, has trade with South China diminished. Strangely enough, the latest figures show an appreciable increase. During January to October, 1949, Hong Kong's trade in this region totalled £24,832,631, consisting of exports valued at £6,958,412 and imports at £17,874,219, making a general increase of 40 per cent over the same period in 1948.

Taking Hong Kong's total trade for the period analysed above, it is clear that when complete figures for 1949 are published, they will far exceed the record 1948 total of £228.7 million. During the first three-quarters of last year, total imports were £119,831,875 and exports £99,846,941, giving a total turnover of nearly £220 million, or a rate of £293 million for the whole year. How this trade has steadily grown since the re-occupation is shown in the table below.

VALUE OF HONG KONG'S TRADE IN STERLING

Year	Total Turnover	Imports	Exports
1946	£102,195,000	£58,345,000	£43,850,000
1947	£172,922,000	£96,870,000	£76,052,000
1948	£228,700,000	£129,800,000	£98,900,000
1949 (First 10 months)	£249,873,000	£137,159,000	£112,714,000

Hong Kong's post-war trading interests follow substantially the same pattern as in pre-war years. Last year, trade with China as a whole, the Colony's chief customer, declined appreciably, but it has picked up again in recent months. There has also been a steady increase in trade with the United States, now second on the Colony's list of trading countries, and with Japan. Imports from America were running at a higher rate than ever during 1949 and in the first nine months before devaluation took effect amounted to no less than £25,184,788 by value compared with £17,843,497 in the corresponding period of 1948. Exports to America also showed a rise, £9,579,484 as against £6,992,181, but it is still too early to gauge the effects of devaluation on the complicated financial structure of the port. Apart from China and America, the main trade connections continue to be with the Commonwealth, especially the United Kingdom and Malaya, the continent of Europe, Siam, Macao and the Philippines.

Its geographical position and free trade have been the two main factors responsible for Hong Kong's prosperity, though to these must be added the resilience and adaptability acquired in the course of a century of trading in a region which, in the last fifty or so years at least, could hardly be described as peaceful. Before this, there was the hostility and often justifiable suspicion of the Manchu Dynasty towards all western trading countries. So far as possible, the principle of free trade has been maintained and, today, Hong Kong is a free port except for import duties on intoxicating liquors, tobacco, patent medicines, hydro-carbon oils and motor vehicles not of British origin. These duties form the main source of the Colony's revenue. In earlier years, the administration derived a considerable income from its opium monopoly, but through a policy of gradual suppression, revenue from this source declined until by 1939 it formed less than one per cent of the total. Since World War II, opium consumption in the Colony has been totally prohibited.

During its first ten years or so under British rule, Hong Kong Island was used chiefly as a naval base and did not become of much commercial importance until the discovery of gold in Australia in 1851, one result of which was a large-scale emigration from China. The Convention of Peking of 1860, by which Kowloon was added to the Colony, helped to stimulate commerce in the Far East and

in the next few years important banking, insurance, and shipping companies were set up in Hong Kong. A further stimulus to trade was the opening of the Suez Canal in 1869 and thereafter a rapid development took place. Meanwhile, large harbour projects were being vigorously undertaken. As early as 1867, the Hope Dock, 425 feet in length and with a depth of 24 feet, had been opened and as trade grew, such facilities were steadily increased. Two of these were a new commercial pier opened in 1900, and the Praya Reclamation Scheme to extend the esplanade on the Victoria side of the harbour and also to ensure a depth of 20 feet at all states of the tide.

The vast trade expansion that took place after the turn of the century is best indicated by the following tonnages of ships entered and cleared during four selected years in the port's development: 1880—8,360,000; 1902—19,710,000; 1921—43,500,000, and 1938—30,960,000. Overseas shipping using Hong Kong during the middle 'thirties was almost as great as that using the ports of London, Rotterdam and Antwerp, slightly greater than in the case of New York, and nearly twice as great as in the case of Sydney. In 1910 the estimated trade turnover was £50 million, but by 1920 when the Colony was at the peak of its prosperity, this figure had risen to £212 million. Later, war in China and the depression brought about a drastic reduction in trade between the Far East and the Western Hemisphere so that, by 1938, Hong Kong's total trade had dwindled to £69.9 million. A fall in commodity prices, however, accounted partly for this reduction in the monetary value of the Colony's trade just as today inflated world prices are the main reason for the record post-war returns. The number of ships now using Hong Kong would seem to indicate that the port is handling about the same volume of goods as in a good average year pre-war.

That the Colony has managed to restore the volume of trade to the pre-war level is in itself, however, a magnificent achievement, particularly in view of conditions in the territory at the time of its liberation, not to mention conditions in the Far East generally. When, on August 30th, 1945, British naval units re-entered Hong Kong, they found an appalling situation. There was no food, shipping, industry, nor commerce, the transport system had broken down and public utilities were barely functioning. Of an estimated population of 1,600,000 in 1941, only 750,000 remained and most of these were ragged and half-starved. Tens of thousands had died as a result of sheer starvation or prolonged malnutrition, while thousands more had been forcibly deported into occupied China. For all practical purposes, the local fishing industry, that had once supplied the vast bulk of the population with its sole source of protein, had ceased to exist. In the harbour area, damage to docks, warehouses and shipbuilding yards was widespread. Sunken wrecks littered the enclosed waters, godown space for 170,000 tons had been destroyed, only 500 remained of the 2,000 lighters operating in 1941, and no more than two of the 48 commercial moorings had survived the occupation.

Confronted by these and numerous other problems, the administration and private enterprise set about the immense task of reconstruction displaying that energy and resource which has characterised such rehabilitation work, not only in Hong Kong, but also in Malaya, Singapore, and the North Borneo territories. Dockyard repairs began

almost at once, bomb rubble was cleared, food was distributed, the fishing fleet was rehabilitated and public utilities set working again. Confidence was restored to such an extent that between September and December 1945, there was an influx of nearly a million people into the Colony. By the end of 1946, 30 to 40 per cent of total harbour damage had been repaired and stevedores and dock labourers numbered about half the 12,000 to 15,000 employed before the war. This high rate of reconstruction was intensified during 1947 and 1948. At the end of 1947, Hong Kong's shipyards were able once more to undertake the construction of vessels up to 10,000 tons, and twelve months later, the port as a whole was operating again at its pre-war level of efficiency. Since then, there have been further improvements with the result that the 1948-49 Report of the Director of Marine has been able to state: "It can now be fairly claimed that the Port of Hong Kong is the cheapest in the Far East with a first-class record for safe cargo handling and pilferage losses at a minimum."

Including local trading craft, the approximate tonnage of ships entered and cleared at Hong Kong in the three years 1946 to 1948 was as follows:

Year	Total No. of Ships	Total Tonnage	Foreign Trade Tonnage
1946	45,484	11,244,000	10,988,000
1947	51,425	18,990,000	18,504,000
1948	65,761	22,400,000	21,385,000

Altogether, the port now has seven graving docks and six patent slipways capable of handling vessels of 300 feet in length and upwards, as well as numerous slipways for the smaller type of vessel.

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During the last four years the Colony has also been able to record considerable advances in other directions. Besides the restoration of old-established basic industries such as shipbuilding and repairing, there has been a rapid growth of light industries producing a wide range of products such as textiles, rubber shoes, buttons, leather goods, cigarettes, matches, preserved ginger, glass ware, paint and torches. Textile production, in particular, has expanded rapidly and in this industry much of the "migrant capital" from Shanghai has been invested. Film production is also a thriving activity and in 1948 there were seven companies in operation though, as the Annual Report for that year rather dryly remarks: "Hong Kong cannot yet claim to be the Far Eastern Hollywood." Most encouraging of all industrial progress, however, is the rebuilding of the fishing fleet and the reorganisation of the marketing system by which the activities of the "laan" or middleman have been largely eliminated.

Yet, in spite of the present optimism among local business circles the future of secondary industries in Hong Kong is bound to be problematical. Labour and raw material costs are high and as time goes on there will be increasing competition from India and Japan. However a total of £35,494,281 in exports of Hong Kong manufactures for the first nine months of last year says much for local industrial enterprise.

Much progress has also been made in the provision of social services, particularly in the extension of educational and medical facilities. Hong Kong University is now fully re-established, and the number of children attending schools is today 140,000, an all-time record enrolment. Government expenditure last year on education, including the University grant, was well over £1,300,000 or about 12.5 per cent of total revenue. As regards the Colony's health, the Medical Department has been able to report the absence of any major epidemic since the re-occupation, in spite of the thousands of homeless refugees and the fantastic overcrowding in certain areas of the Kowloon waterfront. Tuberculosis remains as grave a problem as ever but, taking all diseases into account, there has been a substantial decrease in the number of recorded deaths compared with pre-war years: in 1948, for instance, 13,434 deaths were notified, less than a quarter of the total for 1940.

At this stage speculation about Hong Kong's future is profitless, but most observers agree that the line of action most likely to be adopted by the Peking Government will be one of political pressure, if and when it secures a seat on the Security Council. The important but paradoxical point is that Hong Kong's present flourishing condition—a condition so essential to Communist China—has been achieved largely through British effort and there can be no guarantee that its vast international trade could be maintained under another régime.

HONG KONG EXHIBITION

by Elizabeth S. Copleston (Hong Kong)

THE seventh Annual Exhibition of Chinese Products, sponsored by the Chinese Manufacturers' Union of Hong Kong, was held in the Colony from December 15th, 1949, through January 2nd, 1950. The Exhibition was formally opened by H.E. the Governor, Sir Alexander Grantham, who stressed Hong Kong's need for exports owing to its small local market, and the necessity for its industry to install the most up-to-date machinery available and to train its employees to operate it efficiently, in order to enable the Colony's products to compete in quality and price with those of the outside world.

This Exhibition was considerably larger than that of the year before, with 427 stalls as compared with 228 in 1948; 216 exhibitors against 175, and 44 categories of goods displayed instead of 33. There was an improvement in quality and design as well as a greater variety of products, and prices in general were lower than those of the previous year, thanks largely to the introduction of new machinery in many of the Colony's factories. The goods displayed ranged from roofing tiles, steel window frames and nails through thermos bottles, gum-boots and textiles to plastics, cosmetics and foodstuffs. Mr. U Tat-chee, the "Ginger King" and Vice-Chairman of the Chinese Manufacturers' Union, stated that Hong Kong textile manufacturers have recently received a number of orders for textiles from the United Kingdom, and that one buyer is interested in placing orders for as much as 25,000 bolts of cotton cloth.

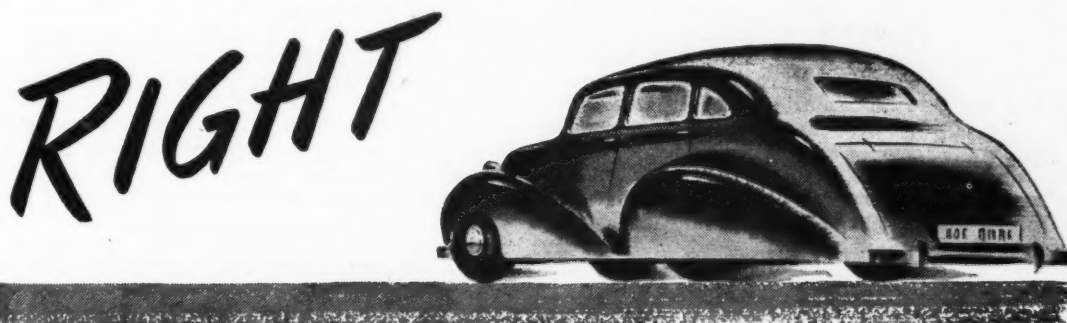
Despite these signs of improvement, however, it is unlikely that the bulk of the Hong Kong products displayed could compete in Western markets. Some of the traditional Chinese products were both lovely and by European standards astonishingly cheap. A bridge-table cloth and four napkins of Swatow drawn work on heavy Irish linen was priced at HK\$34*, a nest of six attractive lacquer boxes sold for \$12, and the hand-carved ivory articles ranged from small brooches at 50 cents each, to an intricate object about eighteen inches high, a series of balls within balls on the end of a stick, carved from a single piece of ivory, for \$800. Some of the Chinese delicacies displayed, like ginger and soy sauce, are already popular in the West, while others, like the whole ducks and pigs which appear to have been dipped in jelly and then flattened out by a steam roller, were for the local market only. A number of Hong Kong factories showed gum-boots and rubber-soled canvas shoes, selling at about \$5.10 and \$6 respectively, thermos bottles and ice buckets at \$5 and \$15, and flashlights at \$2.70. All these articles have become Hong Kong specialities in recent years and are reported to last fairly well and to be something of a bargain at the price. But most of the Western-style goods displayed were cheap and shoddy in the extreme. There were inferior copies of Bohemian cut glass dishes, cheap, to be sure, but of such poor quality as to attract few Western buyers; there were brightly coloured

* HK\$16 = £1.

IN SOME COUNTRIES THEY DRIVE



IN SOME COUNTRIES THEY DRIVE



BUT THE WORLD OVER THEY



DRIVE ON

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but badly finished plastic articles (still a novelty in Hong Kong) such as plates at 90 cents and mugs at \$1 each; 6.50 x 16 automobile tyres at \$80; cotton undershirts at \$5 and \$10 each; small boxes of musk and heavy solid perfume at \$1 each; and some very shoddy-looking towels at \$1 each.

Although products such as these have little appeal for Europeans, most of them are cheap enough to be within the means of the local coolie, who can afford few Western goods. The Exhibition was jammed with spectators, mostly

of the coolie class, from 10 a.m. to 10 p.m. for every one of its nineteen days, and many of them bought, such items as inexpensive cotton cloth and flimsy tin pots and pans appearing to be the most popular. It would appear, on the basis of the products displayed, that there is little likelihood of prompt realisation of the Governor's hope that Hong Kong exports will eventually earn hard currency. Their cheapness, however, should prove a major selling point in nearby markets, where price is far more important than quality.

PAKISTAN'S MULTI-PURPOSE PROJECTS

by Mochin Ali (Karachi)

THE total land area of Pakistan is 200 million acres, of which only about 45 million acres are cultivated annually, and about 30 million acres irrigated. Vast tracts in Western Pakistan are arid, and cannot be brought under the plough without artificial means of irrigation. This brings into prominence the extreme urgency of measures to exploit the plentiful surface and underground water resources to the maximum extent, in order to make good use of the land the major portion of which is, at present, lying fallow. Agriculture is, and must remain, for a long time to come, Pakistan's chief industry, and she must not only maintain, but improve her position as a surplus food producing country. At the same time, she must increase the production of raw material for her expanding industrial projects.

In order to achieve this objective it will be necessary to bring under cultivation about 40 per cent of the land, and to double the total irrigated area. At present, there are several irrigation projects in different stages of construction, for instance, the Lower Sind Barrage, the Thall Canal in West Punjab, the Warsak Dam in the N.W.F.P. and the Karnafuli Dam in East Bengal. Another large project, the Upper Sind Barrage, is being held in abeyance until the completion of the Lower Barrage. The maximum area that will be brought under irrigation by these projects will be roughly 10 million acres, but there are other sources of water supply which have not yet been tapped.

In the past the use of the surface water available in the rivers was limited by their minimum flow during the rabi season. The exploitation of the huge quantities of water which swell the rivers during the monsoons has not yet been attempted, but it is proposed to harness these floods by impounding them in reservoirs for use during the dry seasons of the year. For this purpose, high dams could be built in the upper regions of the Indus valley, thus enabling the storage of vast quantities of water, and at the same time stop the perpetual erosion of river banks and fertile soil, and the heavy damage to crops as well as to life and property. The water stored in these Himalayan reservoirs could be used for the generation of power at the dam sites, and ultimately diffused by canals for irrigation purposes. An unsatisfactory feature of Pakistan's existing irrigation systems, which depend for their supply on the natural flow of rivers, is that their discharge is at the minimum during the rabi season, when water is required

most for the crops. With reservoirs built in the Himalayan uplands, canals will be able to get uniform, instead of variable, supplies of water sufficient for their needs throughout the year.

At the same time, this would facilitate navigation, and so provide highways for the cheap transport of forest and agricultural produce and industrial goods all the way from the north to the sea, a matter of a thousand miles or more.

Before the advent of the British, inland navigation in Pakistan was highly developed, of which there is ample evidence in historical records, such as James Rennell's *A Map of Hindoostan*, published in 1792. Steam navigation was first started on the Indus in 1835. In 1859, the Indus Flotilla was established and, in 1861, the Oriental Inland Steam Company commenced operations. These fleets were, however, allowed to be acquired by the Sind Railways in 1870, and were closed down in 1882, for the benefit of railway scrip-holders. To give an idea of the Indus trade, it may be mentioned that the Indus Flotilla carried down, in 1875-76, goods to the value of Rs. 88,23,000, comprising chiefly cotton, wool, oil seeds, indigo and sugar. The up-traffic was valued at Rs. 87,06,000 and confined almost entirely to piece-goods and metal. The Indus was navigable up to Attock, a distance of about 1,000 miles, the Chenab as far as Wazirabad (800 miles) and the Sutlej as far as Ludhiana (800 miles). Steam navigation was purposely killed in the interests of railways in 1882 and the construction of innumerable irrigation works, without the provision of navigation locks, effectively stopped the economic operation of inland water services in the whole of the Indus valley. The Central Engineering Authority is now actively engaged in schemes for reviving inland navigation in Western Pakistan, and for giving it a fillip in Eastern Pakistan.

One of the chief projects besides irrigation and navigation, is the generation of power from water. Pakistan is rich in this respect. At a rough estimate, her power potential may be taken as 5 to 6 million kilowatts. At the moment, a number of hydro-electric schemes are in various stages of construction, for instance, at Rasul on the Jhelum Canal in West Punjab, at Malakand and Dargai on the Swat Canal, and the Warsak multipurpose dam on the Kabul river, in the N.W.F.P. By 1954, these will be able to supply sufficient electricity to cope with a maximum

demand for power up to 250,000 kw. The magnitude of this can be gauged by the fact that the total maximum demand on existing generating stations in the whole of Pakistan has varied between 41,000 and 49,000 kw., during the last twelve months.

Side by side with these developments, the Central Engineering Authority is carrying out an intensive load survey of the whole of Pakistan, and preparing for the country-wide transmission of electric power by means of grids. These will eventually supply electricity to the villager and the industrialist in every corner of Pakistan. At the same time, the paucity of good coal deposits in Pakistan, her dependence on outside supplies which are necessarily insufficient, irregular and costly, and the inherent cleanliness and efficiency of working electrically-driven transport systems, are strong arguments in favour of the electrification of the railways, at least in Western Pakistan where large blocks of cheap power could be made available from multipurpose projects in the north and transmitted through a semi-dominion-wide grid.

Another scheme which the Central Engineering

Authority are considering will be soil conservation by the afforestation of ravines, and of such lands as have been denuded of vegetation by excessive felling of trees, indiscriminate grazing or the ravages of floods. Flood control will reduce a considerable amount of erosion and ravining, which is at present taking place all along drainage lines. The washing away of the top fertile soil will be stopped by means of terracing and the planting of trees. Terracing will also help to reclaim a lot of land now lying idle and steadily deteriorating, and will make it available for agricultural purposes. Indiscriminate grazing will have to be controlled, and fodder crops sown on reclaimed lands. The planting of fuel trees will save valuable manure, which at present is burnt, and is a national loss of the first magnitude.

Extensive irrigation, cheap power, unhampered transport—these are Pakistan's three life lines and she has practically unlimited possibilities for developing them. But it needs vision and confidence; proper planning and bold financing, unremitting labour and abundant technical staff to complete the task.

THE FORTHCOMING B.I.F. 1950

by V. Wolpert

THIS year the British Industries Fair will be held from May 8th to 19th. One of the main mottoes of this year's exhibition is: "British industry is designing goods to meet the needs of overseas markets."

The first B.I.F. was held 35 years ago in 1915. Then, 591 exhibitors' stands occupied nearly 89,000 square feet, and the number of overseas buyers amounted to 285. At this year's Fair—the 29th B.I.F.—over 3,000 firms will exhibit their latest goods, and the actual exhibition space will be over one million square feet, representing an increase of about 100,000 square feet as against the area of the last year's Fair. It is expected that the number of overseas buyers will exceed the number of last year's (the 28th) B.I.F., when over 17,000 buyers from overseas countries attended. Last year India and Australia provided a record attendance of over 1,000 buyers each. The highest figures for any individual territory were provided by the Indian sub-continent. The following table shows attendance figures from some Far Eastern countries at the 1915 and 1949 B.I.F., clearly illustrating the lively interest in that area in British export goods:

	1915	1949		1915	1949
India	10	1,285	Malaya	—	190
Pakistan	—	224	Japan	—	7
Ceylon	—	164	China	—	133
Burma	—	79	Fiji	1	1
Thailand	—	20	Philippines	—	18
Hong Kong	—	114	Sarawak	—	4
Indonesia	—	20	Australia	19	1,131
Indo-China	—	5	New Zealand	3	357

The B.I.F. has now become the world's largest national trade fair. Ninety British industries will be represented this year. For the convenience of buyers, exhibits will be displayed in groups of closely allied trades:

OLYMPIA, London, will house the following industries' groups: brushes and brooms; chemicals, chemists' supplies, cosmetics, toilet preparations and perfumery; cutlery, jewellery (real and imitation); fancy goods; musical instruments; office machinery and equipment, metal office furniture; radio receiving sets; scientific and photographic apparatus; sports goods; stationery, paper, printing and publishing; toys and games, baby carriages.

At EARLS COURT, London, will be found: domestic section—cleaners and polishers; foodstuffs, beverages and tobacco; furniture, etc.; leather, leather goods (including boots and shoes and travelling requisites); plastics; pottery and glassware; textiles and clothing.

Engineering and hardware firms will exhibit at CASTLE BROMWICH, Birmingham, where the following industries' groups will be represented this year: hardware, ironmongery and brassfoundry; building; electricity; engineering (including metals, quarry, mining, colliery, road and oilfield machinery and equipment, transport, gas, etc.). An extension at Castle Bromwich will present a special display of civil engineering contractors' plant, the largest show of this kind ever held at a B.I.F.

While the Exhibition is confined to goods produced in the U.K., a display of Commonwealth products organised by various Commonwealth Governments will again enliven the Fair.* Extensive market research carried out during the last year has supplied British manufacturers with valuable information which has helped the industrial firms to create new goods and to adapt their old products by certain alterations to the requirements of various overseas markets.

Although the textile and clothing industries organise their major display only every second year (the next major display will be presented at the 1951 B.I.F.), this section will still be one of the largest of the forthcoming fair, representing nearly 200 firms. It is expected that buyers interested in textiles will stay in London until the end of May to attend the London Fashion Fortnight which will be opened on May 30th.

* "The B.I.F. and the Far East," EASTERN WORLD, June, 1949.

Following the devaluation of the pound, prices of British goods have become even more competitive, and the delivery terms of many industries are shorter than they were one year ago, owing to increased production capacity and higher productivity. At the forthcoming B.I.F., buyers will note improvements achieved in the export packing of British goods and a greater range of packaging materials. The exhibition will be able to demonstrate again the quality of goods "made in Britain," and the executives of industrial and export firms are expecting to meet many new buyers from all over the world. Even industries not exhibiting at the B.I.F. (e.g., the motor-car industry) may anticipate additional business, as an increased number of foreign visitors will come to the showrooms of individual firms.

The all-out drive to increase British exports to the dollar and other hard currency areas does not distract the attention paid by British exporters to South-East Asia and the Far East, the traditional markets of Great Britain. The following table shows the figures of Britain's trade with the main countries of this area during the first 11 months of 1949 and during the corresponding period of 1948:

	Britain's Exports		Britain's Imports	
	first 11 months 1948	1949	first 11 months 1948	1949
	<i>(all figures in million £'s)</i>			
Grand Total ...	1,438.1	1,630.8	1,900.9	2,077.2
<i>including</i>				
India ...	85.7	111.3	87.0	88.0
Pakistan ...	15.1	30.3	10.1	13.9
Burma ...	13.4	6.0	5.8	3.1
Singapore ...	18.7	21.0	13.5	10.7
Fed. of Malaya ...	15.1	17.1	16.1	12.6
Ceylon ...	11.4	13.5	24.7	24.6
Hong Kong ...	18.9	24.8	4.8	9.4
Thailand ...	2.5	4.2	1.1	2.8
Indonesia ...	7.2	11.9	1.6	5.7
Indo-China ...	0.9	0.7	—	0.1
China ...	8.3	2.1	7.6	3.6
Japan ...	0.2	1.0	4.8	10.5
Philippines ...	2.6	1.2	1.0	1.1
Australia ...	131.5	172.3	152.9	191.9
New Zealand ...	47.7	57.8	102.6	109.9
<i>Total</i> ...	379.2	475.2	433.6	487.9
<i>(Britain's re-exports are not included in these figures)</i>				

The table shows that the Asian countries' share of the total British exports rose from about 26 per cent during the first 11 months of 1948 to about 30 per cent during the corresponding period of 1949, and that while the total British exports rose by 13 per cent, the exports to these countries increased by over 25 per cent.

British industrialists, well aware of the very great potentiality of South-East Asia and the Far East as markets for British goods, closely watch the political and economic development of the various countries in this area, and are determined not to neglect it even if the exports to this region do not bring in hard currency. The obstacles for a further increase of British exports to Asia are mainly found not in the U.K. but in the various countries of the East, and range from political unrest to too vigorous import restrictions. In this connection it is noteworthy that during the three months ended June 30th, 1949, when India's import

restrictions were liberalised, India imported British goods worth £38 million as against £22 million worth of goods during the corresponding period of 1948. British firms whose exports to India are at present severely curtailed and in many cases completely prohibited by India's import restrictions hope that the economy of India will develop favourably and that the Government of India will then be able to abolish these import restrictions which handicap the trade between the U.K. and India. That the British exporters can hold their own may be illustrated by the fact that while Malaya's total imports during the first nine months of 1949 (1,358.9 million Straits dollars) were about 10 per cent lower than the imports during the first ten months of 1948 (1,509.4 million Straits dollars), the imports from Great Britain during the same period have increased by one per cent from 278.4 to 281.4 million Straits dollars.

The political consolidation in Indonesia will, it is hoped, lead to an increased trade between the U.K. and the U.S. of Indonesia. It is too early to discuss the question of whether the economic talks held at the Colombo Commonwealth Conference will already in the near future result in an increased trade between the U.K. and the Commonwealth countries in South-East Asia, and the problem of future trade relations between China and Great Britain still awaits solution. Too many developments, particularly in South-East Asia, are still in a fluid state. The organisers of the B.I.F. and the exhibiting firms hope, however, that the number of buyers from South-East Asia and the Far East will be high, as British industry is eager to show to the prospective buyers the new British capital—and consumer goods, and to sell these goods to the area which badly needs them.

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ASIATIC TIMBER RESOURCES

by Eric Hardy

THE acute shortage of timber in Britain and the Middle East will certainly last for many years, and with it the high level of prices. While many Asiatic countries, notably India, have vast natural forests containing a variety of trees of economic importance—more than 2,500 different trees are found in India alone—the problems of developing any considerable source of supply to meet western shortages are many.

China and Japan are less fortunate than most Asiatic countries as regards natural timber resources, and the devastation by the Japanese invaders and the years of civil war in China have not improved matters.

One of the successful areas of modern reforestation has been the province of Anhwei, where the Nationalist Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry planted 1,400,000 trees, of which 80 per cent were flourishing in 1948. This plantation was part of a policy to rehabilitate land flooded by the Yellow River and the forest covered 4,816 acres. Nurseries were established at Fengti and Showhsien, as well as in Anhwei, to propagate at least five million saplings. On the hillsides around Nanking the Nationalists carried out an afforestation scheme. Refugee labour was employed and the trees planted included black locust bean, Chinese pine, tallow tree, bead tree, willow, oriental arbutus and winged nut. There was a planting success of 90 per cent. The ratio of conifers to broad-leaved trees was 4 to 1.

Although these species are of varying timber value, it should not be overlooked that in this and several other Asiatic countries, timber for fuel has a large economic value and an agricultural one in preventing soil erosion. In addition to forest fires, Asiatic plantations suffer considerably from the grazing of the ubiquitous goat, one of the worst enemies of a flora, and from ruthless local fuel-gatherers. The Nanking scheme was supposed to be an experiment for future afforestation schemes in China. The best planting season was found to be February and March, especially for the conifers, since the rainy, humid weather did not affect the work.

The nursery of the National Central University provided many of the horsetail seedlings used, but a quantity came from the experimental stations of the Nationalists' Forestry Research Bureau. The experiment was so successful that the original acreage and number of trees was greatly increased and about a tenth of the 33,300 acres denuded of trees by the Japanese around Nanking was re-planted. The whole area was expected to be reforested in five years, but the fuel shortage is so acute that soldiers and peasants have destroyed many recent plantings.

One of the most interesting post-war events was the discovery of the ancient *Metasequoia* or "Dawn" red-wood trees at Mo-Tao-chi, a little village bordering on Szechwan and Hupeh. Of ancient lineage traced back millions of years, these "living fossils" are of great

botanical interest, and experts from California University have studied them on the spot, as well as China's own experts like Professor Cheng Wan-chun and Dr. H. H. Hu. The temperate Water Pine Valley where these ancient trees grow has about a thousand of these ancient trees, the largest more than a hundred feet high. Their positions in rows and groups indicates that the ancient villagers may have cultivated them for their superior timber. In the plentiful rainfall and fertile soil of the valley the trees grow rapidly. The largest tree so far measured is about 144 feet tall, 79 inches in diameter and estimated to be at least 500 years old. They belong to a family of trees which flourished 60 million years ago in Japan, 40 million years ago in Switzerland, 30 million years ago in North America and 100 million years ago in the Arctic. They bear cones which they shed in winter.

In the East Indies, Borneo's valuable timber forests yield a very hard and durable teak (*Hopea*) which is closely related to the yacal tree of the Philippines (*Hopea basitanica*). Both are used for bridge and railway construction, houses and heavy constructional work. There is also red seraya or Borneo cedar (*Shorea*) used for railway carriages and coachwork, with timber properties similar to the useful meranti wood of Malaya and the Philippine mahogany or red lauan wood. Borneo camphor-wood (*Dryobalanopis oblongifolia*) also grows in Malaya and various islands of the East Indies and is used for a wide variety of constructional work, but it is not sufficiently durable to be in contact with the ground.

India's vast forestry reserves are amongst the greatest in Asia, but the engineer desiring to use some of these hard and durable timbers is often handicapped by the many variations between the trade, vernacular, and botanical names for the trees. Indian anjan, probably the hardest and heaviest wood in Indian forests, is particularly good for railway sleepers. Indian jarul is second only to teak in timber value and it is excellent wood for harbour work and shipbuilding (this tree should not be confused with Australian jarrah). Acle is another Indian tree very suitable for making harbour piles and telegraph poles as it is not attacked by shipworms and termites. Bombay ebony is another tree of great durability.

Although Indian eng (*Dipterocarpus tuberculatus*) is not naturally durable it is often used for house construction in India. Another *Dipterocarpus*, the gurjun, amongst the largest of Indian trees and found also in Burma and the Andaman Islands, has similar properties. Haldu (*Adina cordifolia*) is resistant to termites and is one of the best Indian timbers for planking, boat-making and other uses. Indian laurel wood (*Terminalia*) is valued for use in the better class of decorative woodwork and can compete with the finest Italian walnut, since it is more hard-wearing, but has a similar colour. Indian rosewood (*Dalbergia*) is also suitable for high-class furniture and cabinet work.

Burma has several internationally valuable timbers as well as its famous true teak (which also grows in India). Burmese thitka is used for indoor furniture and makes a good mahogany substitute. Kokko (*Albizia*) which also grows as a roadside tree in India and in the Andaman Islands is also used for decorative cabinet work. Indian laurel wood is just as common in Burma as in India.

One of the best timbers produced in Ceylon is the beautifully lustrous East Indian satinwood (*Chloroxylon Swietenia*) which forms pure stands in the dry zone forests. Very hard and remarkably termite-proof, it has served for forty years as railway sleepers in Ceylon and was used for the famous bridge at Peradeniya, near Kandy, where a single span of 205 feet was constructed entirely of this timber. But its chief uses also include furniture and cabinet work, turnery and veneering as well as for heavy constructional purposes. The Andaman Islands supply much useful timber, notably Andaman padauk (*Pterocarpus*), a valuable cabinet wood and Andaman pyinma (*Lagerstroemia*) a heavy and long-lasting building timber which resembles Indian jarul or pyinma.

There is no doubt that vast hardwood resources await development of an export trade from India, Borneo, Malaya and some of the East Indies. Some of these timbers, like teak, jarul and anjan are harder than many forms of steel and of considerably great engineering properties.

The position of Siberia in Asia is important because the U.S.S.R. owns nearly one-third of the world's timber resources and in 1950 it is planned to sow new forests larger than the total area of the British Isles. The main

Asiatic forests of the Soviet Union lie in the Taiga belt and according to Professor Vasilyev, assistant director of the Forest Institute of the Soviet Academy of Sciences, output will be stepped up to 60 per cent above pre-war. The Russians now run 12 forestry institutes, 15 research institutes, as well as forestry departments in 11 universities and agricultural colleges.

There are some 500 million acres of forests in Siberia, the Far East and the northern, central and southern districts of the U.S.S.R., comprising nearly one-fifth of the Soviet Union's timbered country. The plan is to extend this forestry to 1,250 million acres. The richness of Soviet timber resources is the wealth of softwoods. Seventy-eight per cent of the total forests consist of conifers, Scots pine, larch, fir and spruce, and 22 per cent hardwoods like birch, ash and oak, and lesser quantities of beech, lime, aspen and walnut.

Siberian redwood is unequalled anywhere else in the world, and the Russian timber industry entered Siberia, the Urals and the Far East under the second five-year plan. The excellent quality of Russian softwoods is due to conditions of soil and climate, and Siberian woods are considered by the trade to be the best of all. Their deals, battens and boards contain a large proportion of joinery wood of straight, fine grain, mild nature, freedom from knots and other defects and they do not warp easily.

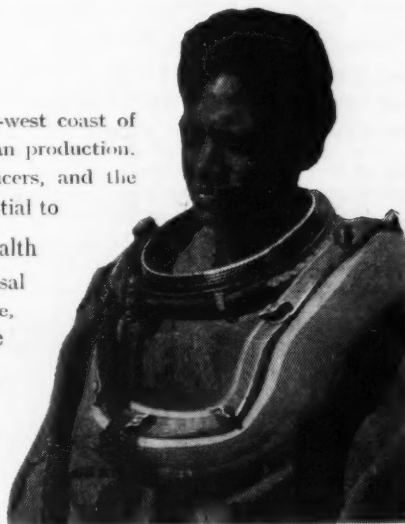
The Siberian forests until recently were almost unworked and there is excellent redwood timber in the Kara Sea area. The Far East forests have 70 million hectares of timber, nearly half of this hardwoods. Less than a third of the natural annual growth of timber is felled.

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THE TEXTILE INDUSTRY IN KOREA

by Yong Wan Kim (Seoul)

SINCE Korea's liberation from the Japanese in 1945, the textile industry, which had long before played an important part in the country's economy, has been most active and has a promising future before it.

The cotton textile industry accounts for 80 per cent of Korea's total textile industry. The Manchurian affair of 1931 began an epoch which changed not only the cotton textile industry but all industries in Korea. The country assumed a new value as the link between Japan and the vast new market for Japanese goods on the continent of Asia. Consequently Japan launched a programme of industrialisation in Korea with the help of heavy investments. More than 150,000 spindles and 6,000 looms were installed during the period from 1933 to 1937, and the textile equipment at the end of this period totalled 230,000 spindles and 8,000 looms.

In 1938 Korea produced 227 million square yards of cotton cloth. Textiles were responsible for about 13 per cent of the total production value of Korean industries. In the years of the Sino-Japanese War and the Pacific War that followed, production steadily decreased because of a shortage of raw materials, machine parts and food for the labourers.

After the war, all Japanese-owned plants were closed in the southern half of Korea, occupied then by the United States and now by the United Nations-sponsored Republic of Korea. But since early 1946, textile plants gradually have started to operate again. In the southern zone, however, annual production for the past three years has been only about 30 million square yards.

The main reasons for the inability of the Republic to return to a capacity output in the textile industry are a shortage of cotton, machine parts, coal and electricity, an insufficient number of skilled technicians and a confused labour situation. At the present time, conditions are improving considerably through the efforts of the E.C.A.,

government authorities, industrialists and labourers. Sixty thousand bales of American cotton were supplied during 1947 and 1948 through the Military Government in Korea, and since March, 1949, the E.C.A. has helped with a considerable amount of cotton, in order to prevent the textile industry from coming to a standstill.

Korea has not enough manufacturers of machine parts to supply her needs. Parts were imported from Japan during the American occupation and now are being brought in through the E.C.A. The supply of coal and electricity is increasing through the efforts of industrialists and the government, but early last year the cotton textile industry was still forced to operate at only one-third of its existing capacity because of the shortage of electric power. Although the labour situation was extremely confused right after the liberation, labour difficulties have now almost disappeared.

With these general improvements, cotton cloth production in the Republic rose in April, 1949, to 5.2 million square yards, or 220 per cent of the previous two years' monthly average. This increase indicates what the combined efforts of the E.C.A., the Korean government, industrialists and workers can accomplish.

The need for a continued stepping up of production can be realised when one considers that under the Japanese regime, while Koreans were exploited to the bone, more than 282 million square yards of cotton cloth were consumed in the whole of Korea in 1936, a *per capita* consumption of 12 square yards.

The Republic of Korea contains 70 per cent of Korea's total population, with the remaining 30 per cent in the Russian-dominated northern zone. Assuming that the *per capita* consumption of cotton cloth should be 16 square yards, the Republic should be producing 480 million square yards annually. To achieve this, the industry needs 500,000 new spindles, 16,000 new looms and 200 million pounds of cotton.

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CANVASSERS wanted in all countries by British Trade Paper, Good Commission.—Box 1201.

ECONOMIC NOTES

JAPANESE COMPETITION

There are various opinions in Britain concerning the degree of export competition which might be expected to develop from Japan. At one end of the scale there is the China and Far East Section of the Manchester Chamber of Commerce which, in their annual report, affirms that serious Japanese textile competition is "only a question of time" and expresses alarm that there is yet "no sign of true realisation in official circles" of the fundamental dangers in the present revival of that nation's cotton industry. At the other end, there is the view which holds that, with an unrelenting production effort coupled with a sustained drive to cut costs, Britain has nothing to fear from any quarter. The one certain thing is that Japanese efforts to expand their volume of export trading are not

going to slacken; it remains to be seen, however, whether this will be successful, at least as regards non-textile articles.

British exporters will be interested in a report issued in the U.S. by the Economic Co-operation Administration flatly refusing to accept any more deliveries of Japanese goods into Korea unless American engineers have first checked them over. It states that only one per cent of a \$300,000 shipment of transformers arrived in Korea in a usable condition; no attention had been given to the ordered specifications, many could not be replenished with cooling oil, others had no oil, capacities were wrong and none were able to maintain the designed load. A \$700,000 shipment of radio equipment yielded only \$100,000 worth of workable units. Of 36,000 railway ties, two-thirds were cracked or otherwise unusable. Out of a consignment of 360,000 tons of rubber conveyor belting a mere single roll (about half a ton) survived inspection; the rest was riddled with holes. All the above mentioned items carried the inspection stamp of the manufacturer and

were counter stamped by Japanese Government inspectors. Also rolling stock ordered by the Thailand Government from Japan is proving highly unsatisfactory. Part of the first deliveries of freight cars have been rejected by officials of E.C.A. owing to the material being below standard.

CHINESE TEA PLAN

A 1950 plan for tea growing and marketing has been drawn up jointly by the Ministries of Trade and Agriculture and a China Tea Company has been established under the joint supervision of the two Ministries as a central organ for implementing it. The plan will encourage the growing of green and black tea and the production of brick tea while untreated tea leaves will be purchased by the State at prices favourable to planters. The tea industry will be developed and twenty tea factories, each with a capacity of 500 tons per year, will be set up in the tea-growing regions. Tea exports to the Soviet Union will be increased and entirely run by the State and exports to Africa will be maintained or increased and can be handled by both State and private capital.

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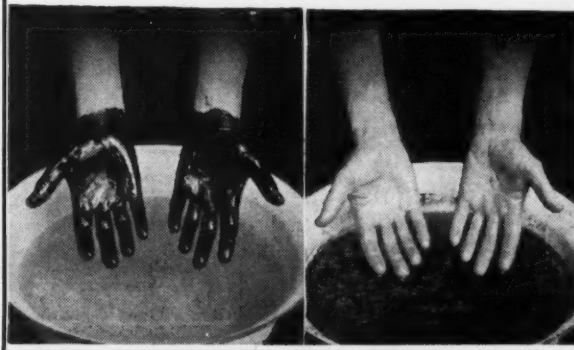
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JAPANESE SHIPBUILDING EXPORTS

Japan's shipbuilding industry was recently able to secure a number of foreign contracts, including an order from Argentina for 10 whaling ships of 500 tons each. According to *Lloyd's Register*, Japan's shipbuilding yards had at the end of the third quarter of this year, 15 merchant ships totalling 84,180 tons under construction for foreign countries, including for registration in Denmark 6 ships totalling 41,800 tons, France 1 ship of 5,800 tons, Norway 5 ships totalling 15,380 tons, Panama 1 ship of 6,200 tons, and Philippines 2 ships totalling 15,000 tons. In addition, 31 ships totalling 53,580 tons were under construction for registration in Japan proper. Thus the overall figure was 46 merchant ships with 137,760 gross tons, representing 2.99 per cent of the world tonnage under construction (Soviet Union, Germany and China excluded, the world total was 1,070 ships with 4,446,070 tons.) These figures show an increase compared with the second quarter of 1949, when the total number of merchant ships under construction in Japan was 31 ships with 116,685 tons, representing

2.6 per cent of the world total. Furthermore, at the end of September there were 3 oil tankers totalling 36,300 tons under construction in Japan, out of the world total of 173 oil tankers totalling 1,908,167 tons.*

An interesting feature is the fact that since the end of the war, the Soviet Union has placed three orders with Japan's wooden shipbuilding industry, the first two consisting of 107 tug boats and 175 lighters which have been already delivered, while another 100 tug boats (the third contract) are at present under construction in shipbuilding yards in the Kansai area.

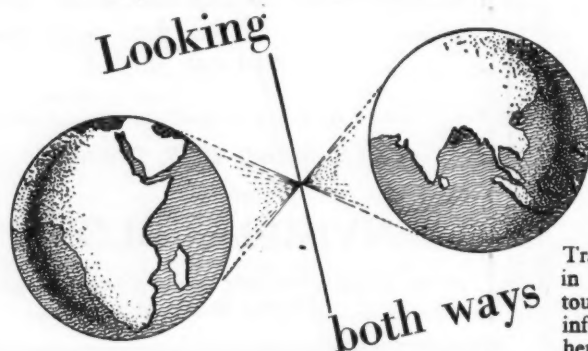
INDIAN IMPORTS FROM CZECHOSLOVAKIA

In pursuance of their policy to liberalise exports, the Government of India have decided to allow the export of nuts, bolts and rivets to all permissible destinations without licensing restrictions. Free licensing for the export of handloom and powerloom cotton piecegoods, which was to have expired by the end of this month, is now to continue. The import of a number of commodities from Czechoslovakia is to be allowed

under the new trade agreement with that country. The principal commodities concerned are electric meters, rengaite, coal tar dyes, saccharine, porcelain for technical use, utility china, utility ceramics, safety glass, technical and laboratory glass and wrapping glass, lighting glass, crown corks, domestic sewing machines and liquid gold.

INDO-CEYLON TRADE AGREEMENT

India and Ceylon have approved the trade agreement, reached between their delegations in New Delhi last October. Under the agreement, which will remain in force throughout 1950, India will export to Ceylon, 400,000 tons of coal, 1.3 million lb. of cotton yarn, 4,400 tons of jute goods, 200 tons of steel, 1,750 tons of linseed oil, 20,000 tons of onions, 10,000 tons of chillies and other articles of food. Ceylon will export to India 20,000 tons of copra and coconut oil, 4,000 tons of rubber (sheet and crepe), 200 tons of graphite for paints and pencils, 4,500 tons of betel nuts, 1 million lb. of unmanufactured tobacco, 256,000 lb. of citronella oil and 22,400 lb. of cinnamum leaf oil.



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Henry Cavendish

first showed the world how water—the most important of all chemical compounds—could be made synthetically. Cavendish discovered that it was composed of the two gases now called oxygen and hydrogen, and in 1784 prepared water by exploding a mixture of them in a glass vessel. The

apparatus which he used is still preserved at the University of Manchester. Cavendish was also the first to weigh the Earth and the result he obtained was astonishingly accurate. Cavendish also discovered the composition of nitric acid, and was the first chemist to recognise hydrogen as a definite chemical element. He prepared it by treating zinc with sulphuric acid. He was also the first practical experimenter to find a means of drying a gas, which he accomplished by passing it through pearl ash.

All these discoveries have proved of immense importance. Though both his parents were English, Henry Cavendish was actually born at Nice in 1731. He was educated at the University of Cambridge, and from 1760 until his death in 1810 his whole time was devoted to science, and in particular to physics and chemistry. Though he was extremely shy, shunned publicity and never attempted to exploit any of his discoveries, the work of this English chemist has been of great and lasting benefit to science and industry throughout the world.



